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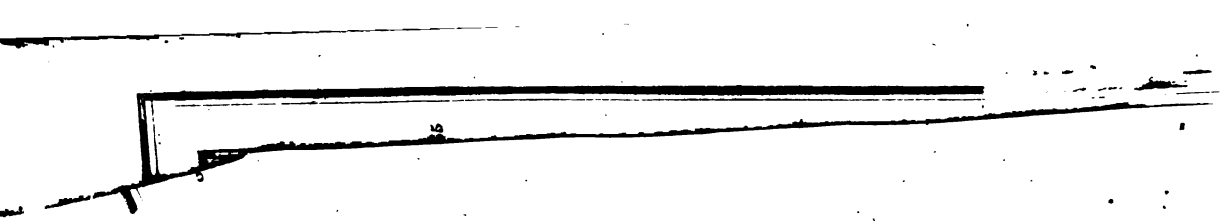

A

NEW HISTORY

OF

GREAT BRITAIN;

FROM

THE INVASION OF JULIUS CÆSAR TO THE PRESENT TIME:

EXHIBITING TO THE MINDS OF YOUTH A VARIETY OF INSTRUCTIVE AND PLEASING INFORMATION, AND SOME PARTICULARS NOW FIRST ADAPTED TO THE CAPACITIES OF YOUNG PEOPLE OF BOTH SEXES:—THE WHOLE CALCULATED TO OPERATE AS MORAL LESSONS, WHILE IT CONTAINS EVERY LEADING TRAIT OF THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

ON A PLAN NEARLY SIMILAR TO THAT OF DR. HENRY.

THE SECOND EDITION, CORRECTED AND IMPROVED.

By the Rev. JOHN ADAMS, A.M.
Author of Lectiones Selectæ, Elements of Reading, &c. &c.

Read History with the greatest Attention, for to be ignorant of what happened before one was born, is to be always a Child. LOCKE.

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TO

CHARLES BURNEY, LL.D.

SIR,

ON the first appearance of this little work, it gave me pleasure to be informed, that both the plan and execution of it had the sanction of your approbation. From that moment I entertained the most sanguine hopes of a favourable reception from the public: nor have I been disappointed.

As the following abridgment contains Biographical Sketches of several literary characters, whose names would have done honour to Greece or Rome, the dedication of it to one of the *first classical scholars* of the age, is but a just tribute of respect to superior abilities.

It is my sincere wish that you may enjoy every comfort both of public and domestic

life. May you long continue to be an ornament to your profeſſion—" to rear the tender thought, and teach the young idea how to ſhoot;"—to inſpire the pupils, who are intruſted to your care, with that *genuine taſte*, which cannot be obtained without an acquaintance with the Claſſics,—and which, when once acquired, can never be obliterated.

I have the honour to be,

With high eſteem,

SIR,

Your moſt obliged

And very obedient ſervant,

JOHN ADAMS.

Putney,
March 25, 1803.

ADVER-

ADVERTISEMENT

TO THE

PRESENT IMPROVED EDITION.

YOUNG people are apt to think that hiſtory is a very dry and unpleaſant ſtudy. But it may be written in ſuch a manner, that while it improves the underſtanding, it will amuſe the fancy as much as any *Novel* or *Romance*. Can there be a more agreeable entertainment to the mind, than to obſerve human ſociety, in its infancy, making the firſt faint eſſays towards the arts and ſciences? To ſee the policy of government and the civility of converſation refining by degrees, and every thing that is ornamental to human life advancing towards perfection? To ſee all our anceſtors paſs as it were in review before us, appearing in their true colours, without any of thoſe diſguiſes, which, during their life-time, ſo much perplexed the judgment of beholders? What ſpectacle can be imagined ſo magnificent, ſo various, ſo intereſting?

The Hiſtory of Great Britain is the hiſtory of liberty, and of the ſtruggles and efforts of a great nation to preſerve it inviolate. It enables us to trace the progreſs of civil ſociety, and the principles and practice of legiſlation. It points out in the moſt ſtriking manner, from example, what we ought to avoid, and what we ought to follow.

In the following pages the young reader will find a conciſe account of the moſt important events which have happened in this country, from the Roman conqueſt to the preſent times, with a diſtinct view of the religion, laws, learning, arts, commerce, and manners of its inhabitants, in every age. The ſubjects of the different periods, being thus claſſed, cannot fail to make a ſtrong impreſſion upon the youthful mind, and to inſpire ſentiments of virtue, patriotiſm, and univerſal philanthropy.

No pains or expence have been ſpared to render this Hiſtory worthy the attention of the riſing generation. Beſides the inſertion of late occurrences, the Author has added an introductory chapter, containing much curious information

formation reſpecting the ancient diviſion, of the Iſland, accompanied with an explanatory Map; and, at the requeſt of ſeveral very reſpectable Seminaries for the Inſtruction of Youth, he is now writing an abridged Hiſtory of Rome, upon a very intereſting plan, which he truſts will be found a proper introduction to the peruſal of more voluminous writers upon this important ſubject.

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INTRODUCTION.

THE several divisions of England merit the attention of youth, as they account for different local customs; and many very essential modes of inheritance, which to this day prevail in our country, took their rise from different Saxon institutions.

The Ancient Division of England, *under the* BRITONS.

Ancient Divisions.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
1. *Dumnunii.*	Cornwall, Devon, and part of Somerset, to the River Parret	*Isca Dumnuniorum,* Exeter.
2. *Durotriges*	Dorset, part of Somerset, and part of Hants, to Southampton Water	*Durnovaria,* Dorchester.
3. *Belgæ*	The remainder of Somerset, Wilts, the remainder of Hants, and a small part of Surry	*Aquæ Solis,* Bath and *Venta Belgarum,* Winchester.
4. *Attrebates*	Berks	*Calleva,* Reading.
5. *Regni*	Sussex, and the remainder of Surry	*Regnum,* Chichester.
6. *Cantii*	Kent	*Durovernum,* Canterbury.
7. *Trinobantes*	Middlesex, Essex, and the east part of Herts	*Londinium,* London, and Camalodunum, Colchester.
8. *Iceni*	Norfolk, Suffolk, and Cambridge	*Venta Icenorum,* near Norwich.
9. *Catieuchlani*	Part of Oxford, Warwick, Northampton, Huntingdon, Buckingham, Bedford, and Herts	*Verulamium,* by St. Alban's.
10. *Dobuni*	The greatest part of Glocester, the remainder of Oxford, and a small part of Worcester	*Glevum,* Glocester.

Ancient Divisions.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
11. *Silures*	Radnor, Brecon, Glamorgan, Monmouth, the greatest part of Hereford, part of Worcester, and the remainder of Gloucester	*Isca*, Caerleon.
12. *Dæmetæ*	Caermarthen, Pembroke, and Cardigan	*Maridunum*, Caermarthen.
13. *Ordovices*	Flint, Denbigh, Merioneth, Montgomery, Caernarvon, the Isle of Anglesea, the south part of Salop, part of Worcester, and part of Hereford	*Segontium*, Caernarvon.
14. *Cornavii*	Chester, Stafford, the west part of Derby, the remaining parts of Worcester and Salop, and part of Warwick	*Deva*, Chester.
15. *Coritani*	Lincoln, Nottingham, Leicester, Rutland, and part of Warwick and Derby	*Lindum*, Lincoln.
16. *Brigantes*	Westmoreland, Cumberland, Northumberland, Bpp. of Durham, Lancaster, and York	*Eboracum*, York.

Roman *Division of* England.

1. *Britannia Prima*, comprehended the South of England.
2. *Britannia Secunda*, Wales.
3. *Maxima Cæsariensis*, the Northern countries.
5. *Flavaria Cæsariensis*, the middle of England.

But the exact boundaries of these provinces are not

Kingdoms erected by the Saxons, *usually ſtiled the* Saxon Heptarchy.

Kingdoms.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
1. Kent, founded by Hengiſt in 454, and ended in 823.	*Kent* — — —	Canterbury.
2. South Saxons, founded by Ella in 491, and ended in 686.	*Suſſex* — — —	Chicheſter
	Surry — — —	Southwark
3. Eaſt Angles, founded by Uffa in 565, and ended in 792.	*Norfolk* — —	Norwich
	Suffolk — —	Bury St. Edmunds
	Cambridge, with the Iſle of Ely	Cambridge, Ely
4. Weſt Saxons, founded by Cerdic in 519, and ended in 828.	*Cornwall, Devon, Dorſet, Somerſet, Wilts, Hants, and Berks*	Launceſton, Exeter, Dorcheſter, Bath, Saliſbury, Winchester, Abingdon
5. Northumberland, founded by Ida in 547, and ended in 827.	*Lancaſter, York, Durham, Cumberland, Weſtmoreland, Northumberland, and Scotland to the Frith of Edinburgh.*	Lancaſter, York, Durham, Carliſle, Appleby, Newcaſtle
6. Eaſt Saxons, founded by Erchewin in 527, and ended in 827.	*Eſſex, Middleſex, and part of Hertford*	London
7. Mercia, founded by Cridda in 582, and ended in 827.	*Glouceſter, Hereford, Worceſter, Warwick, Leiceſter, Rutland, Northampton, Lincoln, Huntingdon, Bedford, Buckingham, Oxford, Stafford, Derby, Salop, Nottingham, Cheſter, and the other part of Hertford.*	Glouceſter, Hereford, Worceſter, Warwick, Leiceſter, Oakham, Northampton, Lincoln, Huntingdon, Bedford, Aylesbury, Oxford, Stafford, Derby, Shrewſbury, Nottingham, Cheſter, and Hertford.

Egbert, as sovereign of the whole heptarchy, having made the other six kingdoms subservient to the West Saxons, first distinguished his dominions by the name of England, about the year 828. Alfred, his successor, in 889, rendered the dimension of the districts more exact, and divided England into thirty-two counties or shires, when Durham and Lancashire were included in that of Yorkshire; Cornwall was included in Devonshire; Rutland in that of Northamptonshire; Monmouthshire was deemed a part of Wales; and Northumberland, Westmoreland, and Cumberland, were then subject to the Scots.

Alfred subdivided each county into trethings or trithings, (of which riding is a corruption) hundreds, and tythings or decannaries. The trething was a third part of a county; the hundred was a district containing a hundred families; and the tything a district that contained ten families.

Since the Norman conquest England has been divided into six circuits, each containing a certain number of counties; two judges are appointed for each circuit, which they visit twice a-year, for the administration of justice to the subjects, who are at a distance from the capital. The circuits and counties are as follows:

HOME CIRCUIT.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Essex.	Chelmsford, Colchester, and Harwich.
Hertfordshire.	Hertford, St. Alban's, part of Royston, Ware, Hitchin, and Baldock.
Kent.	Maidstone, Canterbury, Chatham, Rochester, Greenwich, Woolwich, Dover, Deal, Ashford, and Deptford.
Surry.	Southwark, Kingston, Guildford, Croydon, Epsom, and Richmond.
Sussex.	Chichester, Lewes, Rye, East Grinstead, and Hastings.

NORFOLK CIRCUIT.

Bucks.	Aylesbury, Buckingham, Stoney Stratford, Wickham, and Marlow.
Bedfordshire.	Bedford, Ampthill, Woburn, Dunstable, Lutton, and Biggleswade.
Huntingdonshire.	Huntingdon, St. Ives, and Kimbolton.
Cambridgeshire.	Cambridge, Ely, Newmarket, and part of Royston.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Suffolk.	Bury, Ipſwich, Sudbury, Leoſtoff, and part of Newmarket.
Norfolk.	Norwich, Thetford, Lynn, and Yarmouth.
	OXFORD CIRCUIT.
Oxfordſhire.	Oxford, Banbury, Chipping-Norton, Henley, Burford, Whitney, Dorcheſter, and Woodſtock.
Berks.	Abingdon, Windſor, Reading, Wallingford, Newbury, Hungerford, and Maidenhead.
Glouceſterſhire.	Glouceſter, Tewkeſbury, Cirenceſter, and part of Briſtol.
Worceſterſhire.	Worceſter, Eveſham, and Droitwich.
Monmouthſhire.	Monmouth and Chepſtow.
Herefordſhire.	Hereford and Leominſter.
Salop.	Shrewſbury, Ludlow, Bridgenorth, and Wenlock.
Staffordſhire.	Stafford, Litchfield, and Newcaſtle under Line.
	MIDLAND CIRCUIT.
Warwickſhire.	Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham, and Stratford upon Avon.
Leiceſterſhire.	Leiceſter, Melton Mowbray, and Aſhby-de-la-Zouch.
Derbyſhire.	Derby and Cheſterfield.
Nottinghamſhire.	Nottingham, Southwell, and Newark.
Lincolnſhire.	Lincoln, Stamford, Boſton, and Grantham.
Rutlandſhire.	Oakham and Uppingham.
Northamptonſhire.	Northampton, Peterborough, and Daventry.
	NORTHERN CIRCUIT.
Yorkſhire.	York, Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Rippon, Pontefract, Hull, Richmond, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Malton, Sheffield, Doncaſter, Whitby, Beverley, Northallerton, and Burlington or Bridlington.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Durham.	Durham, Stockton, Sunderland, Stanhope, Barnard Caſtle, and Auckland.
Northumberland.	Newcaſtle, Berwick, Tinemouth, Shields, and Hexham.
Lancaſhire.	Lancaſter, Mancheſter, Preſton, Liverpool, and Wigan.
Weſtmoreland.	Appleby, Kendal, and Lonſdale.
Cumberland.	Carliſle, Penrith, Cockermouth, and Whitehaven.

Western Circuit.

Hants.	Wincheſter, Southampton, Portſmouth, Andover, Baſingſtoke, Chriſtchurch, and Newport in the Iſle of Wight.
Wilts.	Saliſbury, Devizes, Marlborough, Malmſbury, Wilton, and Chippenham.
Dorſetſhire.	Dorcheſter, Lyme, Sherborn, Shaftſbury, Poole, Blandford, and Bridport.
Somerſet.	Bath, Wells, Briſtol in part, Taunton, Bridgewater, and Ilcheſter.
Devonſhire.	Exeter, Plymouth, Barnſtaple, Biddeford, Tiverton, Dartmouth, Taviſtock, Topſham, and Oakhampton.
Cornwall.	Launceſton, Falmouth, Truro, Saltaſh, Bodmyn, St. Ives, Padſtow, and Tregony.
Middleſex,	being the ſupreme court of juſtice, is not comprehended in any circuit; and Cheſhire being a county palatine, enjoys municipal privileges.

CIRCUITS IN WALES.

North East Circuit.

Flintſhire.	Flint, St. Aſaph, and Holywell.
Denbighſhire.	Denbigh, Wrexham, Llanroſt, and Ruthyn.
Montgomery.	Montgomery, Llanvylin, Welchpool, Newton, and Machinleth.

NORTH WEST CIRCUIT.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Angleſey.	Beaumaris, Llanvickmead, and Holyhead.
Carnarvonſhire.	Carnarvon, Bangor, Conway, and Pullilly.
Merionethſhire.	Dolgethen, Bala, Dinaſmoudy, and Harlech.

SOUTH EAST CIRCUIT.

Radnorſhire.	Radnor, Knighton, Riadergowy, and Preſteign.
Breconſhire.	Brecknock, Builth, and Hay.
Glamorganſhire.	Llandaff, Cowbridge, Swanſey, Caerfilly, Neath, Bridgend, and Cardiff.

SOUTH WEST CIRCUIT.

Pembrokeſhire.	St. David's, Haverfordweſt, Pembroke, Denbigh, and Milfordhaven.
Cardiganſhire.	Cardigan, Aberiſtwith, Tregannon, and Llanbeder.
Caermarthenſhire.	Caermarthen, Kidwelly, Llandilovour, Llanimdovery, and Llangadock.

An ALPHABETICAL LIST *of the* ROMAN STATIONS *in* BRITAIN.

Abergavenny, Monmouthſhire.	*Gobannium.*
Aldby on the Derwent, Yorkſhire.	*Derventio.*
Almondbury, ditto.	*Cambodunum.*
Alceſter, Oxfordſhire.	*Iſanavatia.*
Ancaſter, Lincolnſhire.	*Segelocum, and Angelocum.*
Aſhford, Kent.	*Durolevum.*
Aulceſter, Warwickſhire.	*Manduefedum.*
Badbury near Crayford, Blanford, Dorſetſhire.	*Vindogladia.*

Bangor upon the Dee, Flintſhire.	*Bovium*
Bath, Somerſetſhire.	*Aquæ Solis.*
Barbecon, 4 miles N. of Birmingham, Staffordſhire.	*Etocetum.*
Bewcaſtle on the Leven, Cumberland.	*Brocavum.*
Bokenham-New, Norfolk.	*Sitomagus.*
Bod Vari, commonly Bod Farri, Flintſhire.	*Varis.*
Brancaſter, Norfolk.	*Venta Iceno rum.*
Branghin, Hertfordſhire.	*Cæſaromagus.*
Bridgford, Nottinghamſhire.	*Ad Pontem.*
Brinklow, Warwickſhire.	*Ratæ.*
Brockley Hills, Middleſex.	*Sulleniacæ.*
Brough, Weſtmoreland.	*Lavatræ.*
—— Hill, Lincolnſhire.	*Cauſennis.*
—— 1 mile above Daventry, Northamptonſhire.	*Bennavenna and Bennavenna.*
Broughton, near Hampſhire.	*Brigæ.*
Canterbury, Kent.	*Durovernum.*
Caer-Gwent, Monmouthſhire.	*Venta Silurum.*
Carliſle, Cumberland.	*Lugvallum.*
Carnarven, Carnarvonſhire.	*Segontium.*
Caſtle-camps, Cambridgeſhire.	*Camalodunum.*
Cheſter, Cheſhire.	*Devæ.*
Cheſton, Huntingdonſhire.	*Durolipens.*
Cheſhunt, Hertfordſhire.	*Duralitum.*
Chicheſter, Suſſex.	*Regnum.*
Cirenceſter, Glouceſterſhire.	*Ariconium.*
Colcheſter, Eſſex.	*Camalodunum.*
Congleton, Cheſhire.	*Condate.*
Darking, Surry.	*Pontes.*
Devizes, Wiltſhire.	*Verlucio.*
Doncaſter, Yorkſhire.	*Sageolium.*
Dorcheſter, Oxfordſhire.	*Durocornovium.*
Dover, Kent.	*Portus Dubris.*
Doward, Herefordſhire.	*Burrium.*
Ebcheſter, near Corbridge, Durham.	*Burrium.*
Edgbury, near Whitchurch, Hampſhire.	*Cunetio.*
Edge-Hill, Warwickſhire.	*Tripontium.*
Exeter, Devon.	*Iſca Dumnoniorum.*

Farnham, Surry, or Hampſhire.	*Calleva Attrebatum.*
Gembleſpeth, Northumberland.	*Corſtopitum, vel Corſtopilum.*
Glouceſter, Glouceſterſhire.	*Glevum.*
Godmundham, Yorkſhire.	*Delgovitia.*
Greencheſter, Northumberland.	*Vindomora.*
Haveril, Eſſex and Suffolk.	*Colonia.*
Helensford, Yorkſhire.	*Calcaria.*
Hogmagog, Cambridgeſhire.	*Camboricum or Camboritum.*
Hollwood-Hill, near Bromley, Kent.	*Noviomagus.*
Icklingham, Suffolk.	*Combretonium.*
Kaerhen, 3 miles above Conway, Carnarvon.	*Conovium.*
Kencheſter, Herefordſhire.	*Magnis.*
Knightly, Staffordſhire.	*Mediolanum.*
Lancaſter, Lancaſhire.	*Bremetonacum.*
Lancheſter, Durham.	*Glanoventa.*
Leiceſter, Leiceſterſhire.	*Vernomatum, or Ratæ*
Lime or near it, Kent.	*Portus Lemanis.*
Lincoln, Lincolnſhire.	*Lindum.*
Littleborough, ditto.	*Danum.*
London-old, in St. George's-Fields, Surry.	*Londinium.*
Maidſtone, Kent.	*Madus.*
Maldon, Eſſex.	*Villa Fauſtini.*
Mancheſter, Lancaſhire.	*Manucium, Mancunium.*
Merton, Yorkſhire.	*Colaractonium.*
Newark, Nottinghamſhire.	*Crococalana.*
Oldbury, 1 mile Eaſt of Dudley-Caſtle, Staffordſhire.	*Pennocrucium.*
Penrith-Old, Cumberland.	*Verteræ.*
Ravenſborough Caſtle, Hertfordſhire.	*Durocobrivæ.*
Reading, Berkſhire.	*Spinæ.*
Ribcheſter, Lancaſhire.	*Coccium.*

Richborough, Kent.	*Portus Rutupiæ.*
Ring-Hill, near Littlebury, Eſſex.	*Canonium.*
Rippon, Yorkſhire.	*Iſurium.*
Rocheſter, Kent.	*Duro-brivis.*
Ruchester, near Northumberland.	*Caſtra Exploratorum.*
Sandy, Bedfordſhire.	*Magiovintum-nium.*
Sarum-Old, Wiltſhire.	*Sorviodunum.*
Seaton, Devonſhire.	*Moridunum.*
Shap, Weſtmoreland.	*Galacum.*
Silcheſter, Hampſhire.	*Vindonum.*
Southampton, near ditto.	*Clauſentum.*
Stratford-Old, Buckinghamſhire.	*Lactodorum.*
Tallow-Wratting, Suffolk.	*Ad Anſam.*
Tatterſhall, Lincolnſhire.	*Durobrivæ.*
Teinmouth, Northumberland.	*Blatum Bulgium.*
Town-Old, on Alton-water, ditto.	*Galava.*
Verulam, near St. Alban's, Hertfordſh.	*Verolamium.*
Vorran-Caer, Cumberland.	*Voreda.*
Uſk, Monmouthſhire.	*Iſcalegua Auguſta.*
Walwick, Northumberland.	*Lugvallum.*
Wall-Litchfield, South-ſide of Litchfield, Staffordſhire.	*Uxacona.*
Wantage about Berkſhire.	*Clevum.*
Wareham, Dorſetſhire.	*Durnovaria,*
Warwick, Warwickſhire.	*Venonis, and Benonis.*
Whitley Caſtle, the South-ſide of Tyne, Cumberland.	*Alone.*
Willoughby, Nottinghamſhire.	*Margidunum*
Wincheſter, Hampſhire.	*Venta Belgarum.*
Worceſter, Worceſterſhire.	*Bravinium.*
Wrotteſley, Staffordſhire.	*Uriconia.*
Wroxeter, Salop.	*Rutunium.*
Yarmouth, (not in the Itinerary,) Norfolk.	*Garianonum.*
York, Yorkſhire.	*Eboracum.*

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THE

HISTORY

OF

GREAT BRITAIN.

BOOK I.

BRITISH HISTORY, LITERATURE, AND MANNERS.

CHAP. I.

FROM THE INVASION OF JULIUS CÆSAR, 55 YEARS BEFORE CHRIST, TO THE ARRIVAL OF THE SAXONS, A. D. 449.

THE earlieſt migration of the Gauls into Britain happened about a thouſand years before the coming of our Saviour, in the reigns of David and Solomon. The firſt denomination of the iſland was *Albion*, (ſignifying heights) a name evidently conferred before it was peopled, and while its heights were only viewed at a diſtance from the oppoſite ſhore of Gaul. The more recent and general appellation of Britain, after all the learning that has been employed to torture it, appears to be derived from a Celtic word, denoting ſeparation. This is a particular, which, in the natural language of the continent, has always characterized the inhabitants of our iſland. Virgil, in his firſt Eclogue, calls our anceſtors

"*Penitus toto diviſos orbe Britannos:*

"The Britons quite ſeparated from the whole world."

When the information of the Romans extended, with their arms, into this remote part of the globe, the geographers and hiſtorians of that illuſtrious people,

threw some light on the island and its inhabitants. Indeed, so similar were the manners of its rude tribes to those of the opposite shores, that there is no room to doubt of a common origin for both.

Julius Cæsar, about fifty-five years before the birth of Christ, having made great progress in the conquest of Gaul, began to cast an ambitious eye on the island of Britain, and to think of adding it to the Roman empire. He is said to have been prompted to form this design, by the beauty and magnitude of the British pearls, which he greatly admired. His ostensible reason, however, was the assistance which some of the British nations had given to his enemies in Gaul. *

In order to get some intelligence of the state of the country which he designed to invade, Cæsar convened, from different parts of Gaul, a great number of merchants who had visited this island in the way of trade, and asked them many questions concerning its dimensions, the number, power, and customs of its inhabitants, their art of war, and their harbours which were fit to receive large ships. Having received satisfactory answers, he embarked his troops at Calais, and in a few hours reached the coast of Britain, near Dover. After sailing about eight miles towards the north, he determined to land at Deal, though the British army stood ready on the shore, to give him a warm reception. As the enemy approached, the Britons, astonished at the shape and motion of the gallies, and the playing of the engines, first halted, and then began to retreat. But still many of the Roman soldiers hesitated to leave their ships, and encounter at once the waves and the brave natives; when the standard bearer of the tenth legion, having first invoked the gods, jumped into the sea, and advancing with the eagle towards the troops, cried aloud, "Follow me, fellow-soldiers, unless you will betray the Roman eagle into the hands of the enemy: for my part I am determined to discharge my duty to Cæsar and the commonwealth." All who beheld this

* Cæsar's Commentaries.

heroic

heroic action, and heard the animating speech with which it was accompanied, were fired with courage and emulation, plunged into the sea, advanced towards the shore, and obliged the Britons to retire.

After concluding a peace, Cæsar returned into Gaul, and began to make preparations for a second expedition into Britain, which he undertook the next year, when the islanders agreed to pay tribute. From these expeditions, however, the Romans derived very little advantage, but a better knowledge of the island, than they had before.

The Britons, at this period, were governed in time of war by a political confederacy, of which Cassibelanus, whose territories lay about Hertfordshire, was the head; and this form of government long continued to be occasionally exercised among them.

While the Romans were engaged in the horrors of civil war, Britain was entirely neglected by them, and the tribute, which had been imposed by Cæsar, was never paid. Even after Augustus had attained the peaceable possession of the whole empire, he did not think it proper to invade Britain; being probably restrained from it by his favourite maxim, "*Never to fish with a golden hook;*" that is, never to engage in an enterprise, which was likely to be more expensive than profitable. *

The emperor Claudius Cæsar, however, undertook and executed an expedition with little success; for Caractacus, and Boadicea, the A. D. 42. powerful queen of the Iceni, made noble stands against the Romans. The former being at length taken prisoner, after a desperate battle, and carried to Rome, his undaunted behaviour before Claudius, gained him the admiration of the victors, and is celebrated in the histories of the times. Boadicea being defeated, disdained to *survive the liberties of her country;* and Agricola, general to Domitian, after subduing south Britain, carried his arms northwards, where his suc-

* Tacitus.

ceſſors had no reaſon to boaſt of their progreſs, every inch of ground being bravely defended.

To protect the Britons from the invaſions of the Caledonians, Picts, and Scots,* the emperors Adrian and Severus built two famous walls, one between the Friths of Clyde and Forth, and the other between Tinmouth and the Solway Frith. Adrian's rampart of earth was but a ſlender ſecurity to the province; but Severus employed his troops, for the ſpace of two years, in building a ſtupendous wall of ſolid ſtone twelve feet high, and eight feet thick, ſtrengthened with many towers, caſtles, and ſtations at convenient diſtances. This prodigious wall, the veſtiges of which are ſtill viſible in ſeveral places, was built nearly parallel to that of Adrian, at the diſtance only of a few paces to the eaſt.

Before the Romans left the iſland, they aſſiſted in repairing this wall, which had fallen to decay, through the injuries of time and of the enemy. The expence of this work was defrayed by the chearful contributions of the more opulent inhabitants, who conſidered it as one of the chief means of their future ſafety. But as walls and bulwarks are of little uſe, without brave, and well-armed ſoldiers to defend them, the Roman general, having given the Britons exact models of the ſeveral kinds of arms, with ample inſtructions how to make and to uſe them, in defence of their country, their wives, children and liberties, departed with the few remaining Romans, after the iſland had been ſubject to them, more or leſs, 500 years.

The Scots and Picts finding the iſland finally deſerted by the Roman legions, ravaged all before them with a fury peculiar to northern nations in thoſe ages, and which a remembrance of former injuries could not

* The Caledonians were the firſt inhabitants of Scotland: the Picts were Britons forced northwards by the Gauls, before the deſcent of Julius Cæſar; and the Scots, probably, were a nation of adventurers from ancient Scythia, who had ſerved in armies on the continent, and, after conquering the other inhabitants, gave their own name to the country.

fail

fail to inſpire. When they approached Severus's wall, they found it in complete repair, and apparently well defended by armed Britons. But ſo little had theſe profited by the inſtructions of their late maſters, that they became an eaſy conqueſt, and were ſoon put to flight. The enemy breaking in, like hungry wolves into a ſheep-fold, purſued them with great ſlaughter, and drove them to the very ſea. The miſerable Britons, in this frightful extremity, had once more recourſe to the Romans; and in their famous letter, which they called *their groans*, told them, that they had no choice left, but that of being ſwallowed up by the ſea, or periſhing by the ſwords of the barbarians.

Amid all their calamities, however, they had one conſolation: they had embraced chriſtianity; a religion which above all others, teaches the endurance of misfortunes, which encourages its votaries to triumph in adverſity, and inſpires the ſoul with joy in the hour of affliction. As they could receive no aſſiſtance from Rome, the Britons began to conſider what other nation they might call over to their relief. Vortigern, prince of the Danmonii, then poſſeſſed the principal authority among them, by whoſe advice they agreed with two Saxon chiefs, Hengiſt and Horſa, to protect them from the Scots and Picts. The Saxons were in thoſe days maſters of what is now called the Engliſh channel, and their native countries, comprehending Scandinavia, and the northern parts of Germany, being overſtocked with inhabitants, they readily accepted the invitation of the Britons, whom they relieved by checking the progreſs of the enemy, and had the Iſle of Thanet allowed them for their reſidence. But their own country was ſo barren, and the fertile lands of Britain ſo alluring, that in a very ſhort time, Hengiſt and Horſa began to meditate a ſettlement for themſelves; and freſh ſupplies of their countrymen arriving daily, the Saxons ſoon became formidable to the Britons, whom after a violent ſtruggle they ſubdued, or drove into Wales, where their language and deſcendants ſtill remain.

CHAP. II.

RELIGION OF THE ANCIENT BRITONS.

HOW long the ſeveral nations who deſcended from Gomer, the ſon of Japhet, and in particular the ancient Gauls and Britons, continued to worſhip one Supreme Being, we cannot eaſily determine. The adoration of a plurality of gods was introduced by ſlow degrees, and proceeded from various cauſes. The different names and attributes of the true God, were, through miſtake, adored as ſo many divinities. The ſun, moon, and ſtars, the moſt ſtriking and illuſtrious objects in nature, were at firſt viewed with great veneration, as the moſt glorious works and lively emblems of the Deity, and by degrees came to be worſhipped as Gods. Princes and great men, who had been the objects of univerſal admiration during life, became the objects of adoration after death. The Britons had gods of all theſe kinds.

Offerings conſtituted an important part of their religion. They conſiſted of the moſt uſeful and excellent things, which they could procure, and which they were taught would be moſt agreeable to the gods. In their ſacrifices they offered not only beaſts, but the blood of captives taken in battle. They believed that their deities had the government of the world, and the direction of future events in their hands: and that they would, upon proper application, diſcover theſe events to their pious worſhippers.* This belief gave riſe to aſtrology, augury, magic lots, and an infinite multitude of religious rites and ceremonies, by which they hoped to diſcover the counſels of heaven, with regard to themſelves and their undertakings.

The prieſts who taught the principles, and performed the offices of religion, among the ancient Britons, were

* Pliny.

called

called Druids. They enjoyed the higheſt honours and privileges. So great was the veneration in which they were held, "that when two hoſtile armies, inflamed by warlike rage, with ſwords drawn and ſpears extended, were on the point of engaging in battle, at their intervention, they ſheathed their ſwords, and became calm and peaceful." *

Beſides the Supreme Being, the Druids likewiſe believed in an evil demon, who conſtantly oppoſed him. They believed alſo in *fate*, or predeſtination. This doctrine they inculcated with great care. They further maintained the immortality of the ſoul, and a ſtate of future rewards and puniſhments; in either of which, every perſon was to have that retribution, which his good or bad conduct in life deſerved. In this futurity, they cloathed the ſoul with a ſort of airy vehicle, or lighter body, not altogether incapable of pleaſure or pain.

Of the immortality of the ſoul, the Druids ſeem to have had a much firmer and more invariable belief than the prieſts or philoſophers of the Greeks and Romans, who, excepting perhaps a few inſtances, might be ſaid rather to wiſh and hope, than ſteadily to believe it; whereas the Druids, by conſtantly teaching this doctrine, procured it not only a vague and general, but a ſteady and prevailing faith, in all the parts where their religion prevailed.

The ſtate of bliſs into which the ſouls of good and brave men, were ſuppoſed by the Druids to enter immediately after their death, was called, *Flath-innis*, which ſignifies, *the iſland of the brave and virtuous*. In this iſland there was an eternal ſpring, and an immortal youth. There the ſun always ſhed its kindeſt influence. Gentle breezes fanned it, and ſtreams of ever-equal currents watered it. The trees were alive with muſic, and bending to the ground with flowers and fruit. The face of nature, always unruffled and ſerene, diffuſed happineſs on every crea-

* Diodorus Siculus.

ture, and wore a perpetual ſmile of joy; whilſt the inhabitants, ſtrangers to every thing that could give pain, enjoyed one eternal ſcene of calm feſtivity and gladneſs. In ſhort, every diſagreeable idea was removed from the Druidical heaven, and no property was wanting to it which could recommend a paradiſe. Indeed the tradition concerning the firſt paradiſe, which in the earlieſt ſtage of Druidiſm would be freſh and well known, might be the model on which they formed it. From the airy halls and other circumſtances mentioned in the poems of Oſſian, the ſituation of this happy place ſeems to have been in ſome calm upper region, beyond the reach of every evil which infeſts this lower world. This, it muſt be allowed, was a far more agreeable manſion for the enjoyment of ſublime felicity, than that ſubterraneous region in which the Greeks and Latins placed their Elyſian fields.

The Druids likewiſe believed in a hell, or place of future torments, which was a dreary gloomy region, frozen with perpetual cold; an idea of puniſhment that ſeems very natural for a people, who live in a climate where the inconveniences of exceſs of cold are more ſtrongly felt than thoſe of heat.

It was an article in the Druidical creed, "that it was unlawful to build temples to the gods, or to worſhip them within walls, and under roofs." * All their places of worſhip therefore were in the open air, in groves planted with thoſe trees in which they moſt delighted. The chief of theſe was the ſtrong and ſpreading oak, for which they had ſo high an eſteem, that they did not perform the leaſt religious ceremony, without being adorned with garlands of its leaves. In this veneration for the oak, the Druids were not ſingular. The prieſts of other nations, and even the Hebrew patriarchs, ſeem to have entertained an almoſt equal veneration for that tree. † Theſe ſacred groves were watered by ſome conſecrated fountain or

* Tacitus. † Gen. chap. xxxi.

river,

river, and ſurrounded by a ditch or mound, to prevent the intruſion of improper perſons. In the centre of the grove was a circular area, incloſed with one or two rows of large ſtones, ſet perpendicular in the earth. Theſe conſtituted the temple, within which the altar ſtood, on which the ſacrifices were offered. In ſome of their moſt magnificent temples, particularly that of Stone-henge, they laid ſtones of prodigious weight on the tops of the ſtanding pillars, which formed a kind of circle in the air, and added much to the grandeur of the whole. Though the ſacred groves of the Druids have been long deſtroyed, yet of the temples and cromlechs,* which were incloſed within them, there are ſtill many veſtiges remaining in the Britiſh iſles, and other parts of Europe.

The religion of the Druids continued longer in Britain than in ſome other countries, having been revived firſt by the Saxons, and afterwards by the Danes. Even ſo late as the eleventh century, in the reign of Canute, it was found neceſſary to make the following law: "We ſtrictly diſcharge and forbid all our ſubjects to worſhip the gods of the gentiles; that is to ſay, the ſun, moon, fires, rivers, fountains, hills or trees, and woods of any kind."

With regard to Chriſtianity, it is highly probable, from the concurring teſtimonies of ſeveral writers, and from other circumſtances, that Britain was viſited by the firſt rays of the goſpel, before the end of the firſt century. Euſebius, biſhop of Cæſarea, equally famous for his learning and integrity, who flouriſhed in the beginning of the fourth century, and was in high favour with Conſtantine the Great, poſitively aſſerts, that the Chriſtian Religion was firſt preached in South Britain by the apoſtles and their diſciples; and it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that the ſucceſs of the Romans paved the way for the triumphs of the *goſpel of peace*. It is certain alſo, that many of the ſoldiers and officers in the Roman armies were Chriſtians; and as

* Stone tables, on which the Druids prepared their ſacrifices.

their legions were repeatedly ſent over into England to extend as well as to preſerve their conqueſts, it is more than probable, that Chriſtianity was thus diffuſed among the natives.

After the ſuppreſſion of the revolt under Boadicea, Britain enjoyed great tranquillity for many years, under a ſucceſſion of mild and good governors, and preſented an inviting aſylum to chriſtians, who were cruelly perſecuted in other parts, particularly at Rome. For the greateſt part of that imperial city having been reduced to aſhes by a dreadful fire, the infernal tyrant Nero, in order to divert the ſuſpicion of his having been the incendiary, laid the blame of it upon the Chriſtians, and on that falſe pretence, put great numbers of them to the moſt cruel kinds of death. "Some of them were wrapt in the ſkins of wild beaſts, and torn in pieces by dogs; others were crucified; and others committed to the flames."* From thoſe dreadful ſufferings, great multitudes of them fled into other countries; of whom not a few took ſhelter in this iſland, as a place of the greateſt ſafety, and thereby much increaſed the number of chriſtians in Britain.

A. D. 64.

If any of the apoſtles viſited this country, it was St. Paul, whoſe zeal, fortitude, and diligence, were abundant. For though Joſeph of Arimathea and St. Peter, are ſaid to have preached the goſpel, and Simon Zelotes to have ſuffered martyrdom here, yet the belief of theſe aſſertions reſts on no better foundation than monkiſh legends. We have good authority to ſay, that in the year 182, there was a ſchool of learning to provide the Britiſh churches with proper teachers;† from which period it would appear, that Chriſtianity ſpread its benign and ſalutary influence among the inhabitants, in their ſeveral diſtricts.

* Tacitus. † Archbiſhop Uſher.

CHAP.

CHAP. III.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS OF THE ANCIENT BRITONS.

THE fathers and heads of families were the firſt ſovereigns, and the patriarchal was the moſt ancient form of government. The firſt ſtates or civil ſocieties, therefore, were large tribes or clans, conſiſting of brothers, ſiſters, couſins, and other near relations, living in the ſame diſtrict, under the protection of their common parent, or of his repreſentative, the head of the tribe or family. But this government, in its moſt pure and ſimple form, was not of long duration. For as theſe tribes became more numerous, they gradually approached nearer to one another. Diſputes aroſe between them, about their limits, their properties, the honour and dignity of their chiefs, and many other things. Theſe diſputes produced wars; and each of the contending clans, in order to defend themſelves and annoy their enemies, contracted alliances with one or more neighbouring clans, which were thereby, in a little time, conſolidated into one large ſociety. When Britain was invaded by the Romans, it contained many independent ſtates, each compoſed of ſeveral tribes or clanſhips. Of this it will be ſufficient to give one deciſive proof. The Cantii or people of Kent, at that period, formed one of the Britiſh kingdoms; and yet Cæſar mentions no fewer than four kings in Kent at the ſame time, who could be no other than the chieftains or heads of ſo many clans or families, of which that little kingdom was compoſed.

The counties of Eſſex and Middleſex, and ſome part of Surry, were poſſeſſed by the Trinobantes, or Trinouantes. The name of this nation ſeems to be derived from the three following Britiſh words, *Tri*, *Now*, and *Hant*, which ſignify the inhabitants of the new city; for by them London was founded, the moſt

ancient name of which was *Tri-nov*, or the *New City*. The Silures or inhabitants of Wales, were unqueſtionably one of the braveſt of the ancient Britiſh nations, and defended their country and their liberty againſt the Romans, with the moſt heroic fortitude. According to Ptolemy, who flouriſhed about the middle of the ſecond century, there was not ſo much as one town among the Caledonii, the ancient inhabitants of the Highlands, and northern parts of Scotland. This ſeems to be a proof, that theſe nations, or rather tribes, at that period, led a wandering unſettled life, ſtrangers to agriculture, ſubſiſting on their flocks and herds, on what they caught in hunting, or got by plunder, and on the ſpontaneous productions of the earth. The Texali, who were in poſſeſſion of the ſea-coaſts, ſeem to have been more ſettled, and in a more advanced ſtate of civilization. They had a town called *Devana*, at the mouth of the river Deva, or *Dee*, where Aberdeen now ſtands.

As both agriculture and commerce were in their infancy in this iſland, and extenſive tracts of it were covered with woods and marſhes, at the time of the firſt Roman invaſion, it is highly probable that it was not very populous. If we allow twenty thouſand perſons of both ſexes to each of the thirty-eight nations, they will make in all 760,000. Some learned authors will not admit of this number. But any computation much ſhort of this muſt certainly be too low, when we conſider what is ſaid by Tacitus and Dio of the numerous armies of the Britons in thoſe early ages.

The power of the ancient Britiſh monarchs was circumſcribed within very narrow bounds. A fierce people, powerful and martial chieftains, and miniſters of religion who had ſo much influence as the Druids, were not likely to ſubmit to the will of a ſovereign, as a ſupreme law. They commanded the forces of their reſpective ſtates in time of war, but they could not impriſon or puniſh any of their ſoldiers. This was wholly in the hands of the Druids. "None but the prieſts can inflict confinement, ſtripes,

or

or correction of any kind; and they do this, not at the command of the general, but in obedience to their gods, who, they pretend, are peculiarly present with their armies in war."*

The laws, as well as other branches of learning among the ancient Britons, were couched in verse. Though this may appear extraordinary to us, it was far from being peculiar to the ancient Britons. The first laws of all nations were composed in verse, and sung. We have certain proof that the first laws of Greece were a kind of songs. The laws of the ancient inhabitants of Spain were verses, which they sung. This custom was long kept up by several nations. They could easier get them by heart, and retain them in memory.

That great law, the marriage of one man and one woman, which is so clearly pointed out by nature, was fully established among our ancestors. Their kings and queens were subject to it, as well as their meanest subjects; and when they presumed to violate it, they were hated and abandoned by all the world. This appears from the story of Cartismandua, queen of the Brigantes. "Corrupted by prosperity," says Tacitus, "she abandoned herself to luxury, and despising her husband Venutius, admitted her armour-bearer Vellocatius to his place in her throne and bed. This infamous action proved her ruin; for her subjects, the Brigantes, espousing the cause of her injured husband, she was reduced to the greatest distress, and implored the protection of the Romans. These sent an army to her relief, which rescued her person, and fought several battles in her cause, but she was at last obliged to leave her kingdom in the possession of Venutius." Murderers, robbers, and thieves, were burnt to death. Those who betrayed or deserted the cause of their country were hanged on trees; and cowards, sluggards, habitual drunkards, and prostitutes were suffocated in mires and bogs.

* Tacitus.

Their

Their flocks and herds were the moſt valuable poſſeſſions of almoſt all nations, in the early period of their hiſtory. Several of the Britiſh nations, when they were firſt invaded by the Romans, had no other property, or means of ſubſiſtence, but their cattle. A high price, therefore, was ſet, not only upon the life, but upon each limb of every uſeful animal. By the ancient laws of Wales it was forbidden, under certain penalties, to throw a ſtone at an ox in the plough, to tie the yoke too tight about his neck, or urge him to too great an effort in drawing.* Very high damages were allowed to the huſbandman, who was authorized to ſeize and retain one out of every three hogs, ſheep, goats, geeſe, and hens, which he found among his corn.

It is probable there were no laws among the ancient Britons to prevent or puniſh verbal injuries, which are ſo ſenſibly felt, and ſo fiercely reſented in modern times. Among the nations of antiquity, in general, the coarſeſt language was given and returned without ceremony, and was not conſidered as an object worthy of the attention of legiſlators.

By their laws of ſucceſſion, a man's lands at his death did not deſcend to his eldeſt ſon, but were equally divided among all his ſons; and when any diſpute aroſe in the diviſion of them, it was determined by the Druids. The youngeſt ſon, it appears, was more favoured than the eldeſt, or any of his brothers. "When the brothers have divided their father's eſtate, the youngeſt ſhall have the beſt houſe, with all the office-houſes, the implements of huſbandry, his father's kettle, his axe for cutting wood, and his knife. Theſe three laſt things, the father cannot give away by gift, nor leave by his laſt will to any but his youngeſt ſon; and if they are pledged, they ſhall be redeemed." To account for this extraordinary law is not very difficult. The elder brothers of a family were ſuppoſed to have left their father's houſe before his

* Leges Walliæ.

death, and to have obtained houſes and neceſſaries of their own; but the youngeſt, by reaſon of his tender age, was conſidered as more helpleſs, and not ſo well provided.

With regard to the Roman government in this country, we ſhall only obſerve, that the Britons were made to *groan under a load of taxes*. The Romans impoſed taxes on land, mines, houſes, pillars, and ſeveral kinds of animals. Artiſts of all kinds paid a certain tax for the liberty of exerciſing their ſeveral arts. Thoſe who adminiſtered to luxury, and made the greateſt profits, paid the greateſt ſums; nor did the mighty monarchs of Rome diſdain to claim a ſhare in the diſhonourable gains of female proſtitution. The Roman emperors ſometimes impoſed a capitation, or poll-tax, which, with another upon the bodies of the dead before they were allowed to be buried, occaſioned great diſcontent in Britain. The famous Boadicea complained bitterly of theſe two taxes, in her harangue to the Britiſh army, before the battle * with the Romans under Suetonius. "Have we not been deprived "of our moſt valuable poſſeſſions, and do we not pay "many heavy taxes for what remains? Beſides all the "various impoſitions on our lands and goods, are not "our bodies taxed, and do we not pay for the very "heads on our ſhoulders? But why do I dwell on "their impoſitions upon the living, when even the "dead are not exempted from their exactions? Do "not you all know how much we are obliged to pay "for the bodies of our departed friends? Thoſe who "are ſubject to other nations are ſubject only for life, "but ſuch is the exquiſite tyranny and inſatiable ava-"rice of the Romans, that they extort taxes even from "the dead."

* This battle was ſuppoſed to have been fought near St. Alban's, where ſeventy thouſand Romans and Britons, who adhered to their cauſe, were maſſacred.

CHAP.

CHAP. IV.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN AMONG THE ANCIENT BRITONS.

THE philoſophy of the Druids bore a much greater reſemblance to that of Pythagoras, than to any ſyſtem of the other ſages of antiquity; the tranſmigration of ſouls being one of their doctrines. As this great philoſopher travelled into many countries in purſuit of knowledge, he no doubt imparted his diſcourſes to the Druids, and adopted ſome of their opinions.

Aſtronomy, Geography, Geometry, and Arithmetic were ſtudied in this iſland, at a very early period. For though they were unacquainted with the Arabic characters of the laſt mentioned ſcience, we have no reaſon to ſuppoſe that they were deſtitute of marks or characters of ſome other kind, which, in ſome meaſure, anſwered the ſame purpoſes, both in making and recording their calculations. The letters of the Greek alphabet were probably uſed for both theſe purpoſes. This ſeems to be plainly intimated by Cæſar in the following expreſſion concerning the Druids of Gaul: "In almoſt all their public tranſactions, and private accounts or computations, they make uſe of the Greek letters."

Monuments ſtill remaining ſufficiently evince, that the ancient Britons could apply the *ſcience of mechanics*, ſo as to produce very aſtoniſhing effects. As theſe monuments appear to have been deſigned for religious purpoſes, we may be certain that they were erected under the direction of the Druids. How many obeliſks, or pillars, are ſtill to be ſeen on the tops of mountains, in Britain and its iſles? We can hardly ſuppoſe that it was poſſible to cut theſe prodigious maſſes of ſtone (ſome of them above 40 tons in weight) without

without wedges, or to raiſe them out of the quarries without levers. But it certainly required ſtill greater knowledge of the mechanical powers, and of the methods of applying them, to tranſport thoſe huge ſtones from the quarry to their places of deſtination.

The famous *Julius Agricola*, who was advanced to the government of Britain, was the firſt of the Roman governors of this iſland, who gave any conſiderable attention to the concerns of learning. This illuſtrious perſon (being not only one of the greateſt generals, but alſo one of the beſt and moſt learned men of the age in which he lived,) took great pains to reconcile the provincial Britons to the Roman government, by introducing amongſt them the Roman arts and ſciences. With this view he perſuaded the noble youth of Britain to learn the Latin language, and to apply to the ſtudy of the Roman eloquence. Theſe perſuaſions were ſucceſsful, becauſe they were ſeaſonable; and the Britiſh youth being deprived of their former inſtructors, by the deſtruction and expulſion of the Druids (which happened about this time) willingly put themſelves under thoſe teachers who were provided for them by the Romans. A. D. 78.

Though the names of ſome learned men, who flouriſhed in Gaul in the third, fourth, and fifth centuries, are ſtill preſerved, it muſt be confeſſed that we know very little of the literati of Britain in thoſe times. This is chiefly owing to the dreadful havoc which was made, firſt by the Scots and Picts, and afterwards by the Saxons, of the monuments of Roman arts and learning in this iſland.

Sylvius Bonus was a learned Briton, who flouriſhed in the fourth century, and was contemporary with the poet Auſonius, whoſe indignation he incurred by criticiſing his works. Auſonius wrote no fewer than ſix epigrams againſt Sylvius, in which he reproached him chiefly on account of his country; for the ſting of all theſe epigrams is this, "If Sylvius be good, he

is not a Briton, or if he be a Briton, he is not good; for a Briton cannot be a good man."

St. Ninian, who was one of the chief inſtruments of propagating the chriſtian religion in the northern parts of this iſland, among the Scots and Picts, was a Briton of noble birth and excellent genius. After he had received as good an education as his own country could afford, he travelled for his further improvement, and ſpent ſeveral years at Rome, which was then the chief ſeat of learning, as well as of empire. From thence he returned into Britain, and ſpent his life in preaching the goſpel in the moſt uncultivated parts of it, with equal zeal and ſucceſs.

St. Patrick, the famous apoſtle of the Iriſh, was alſo a Briton of a good family and ingenuous diſpoſition. Having received the firſt part of his education at home, he travelled into Gaul, and ſtudied a conſiderable time under the celebrated St. Germanus, biſhop of Arles. From thence he went to Rome, where, by the depth of his learning and the ſanctity of his manners, he gained the eſteem and friendſhip of Cæleſtine, biſhop of that city, who adviſed him to employ his great talents in attempting to civilize the people of Ireland, and to inſtruct them in the knowledge of the chriſtian religion. He was not unacquainted with that country, having been taken in his youth by pirates, and carried into Ireland, where he ſpent ſome years. Having there beheld with compaſſion, the general ignorance of that people, he cheerfully undertook the arduous taſk of their inſtruction and converſion. In this work he employed the remaining years of his life, when his pious and learned labours were crowned with the moſt aſtoniſhing ſucceſs.

The famous heretic *Pelagius*, whoſe real name is believed to have been Morgan, was born in that part of Britain, which is now called North Wales, on the 13th of November, 354, the ſame day with his great antagoniſt, St. Auguſtin.

Even the moſt northern parts of this iſland produced ſome men of learning, in this period. *Celeſtius*, the diſciple

diſciple and friend of Pelagius, was a Scotchman, who made a prodigious noiſe in the world by his writings, about the beginning of the fifth century. He defended and propagated the peculiar opinions of his maſter Pelagius, with ſo much learning, zeal, and ſucceſs, that thoſe who embraced theſe opinions were frequently called Celeſtians. The orthodox fathers of thoſe days gave him many bad names in their writings. St. Jerom, whoſe commentaries on the Epheſians he had preſumed to criticiſe, calls him "an ignorant, ſtupid fool, having his belly ſwelled and diſtended with Scotch pottage; a great, corpulent, barking dog, who was fitter to kick with his heels, than to bite with his teeth; a Cerberus, who with his maſter Pluto,* deſerved to be knocked on the head, that they might be put to eternal ſilence." Such were the flowers of rhetoric, which theſe good fathers employed againſt the enemies of the orthodox faith.

CHAP. V.

OF THE ARTS IN GREAT BRITAIN, BEFORE THE ARRIVAL OF THE SAXONS, A. D. 449.

THE firſt arts were thoſe of hunting, paſturage, and agriculture. As ſoon as the Romans had obtained a firm eſtabliſhment in Britain, agriculture began to be very much improved and extended. This was an art in which that renowned people greatly delighted, and which they encouraged in all the provinces of their empire. "When the Romans," ſays Cato, "deſigned to beſtow the higheſt praiſe on a good man, they uſed to ſay, he underſtands agriculture well, and is an excellent huſbandman; for this was eſteemed the greateſt and moſt honourable character." As ſoon, therefore, as the Romans had ſubdued any of the Britiſh ſtates, they endeavoured by various means, to bring their new ſubjects to cultivate

* Pelagius.

their

their lands, in order to render their conqueſt more valuable.

As in thoſe early times, they had no better food than the ſpontaneous productions of the earth, or the animals which they took in hunting, ſo they had no better lodgings than thickets, dens, and caves. Their winter habitations and places of retreat in time of war, being dug deep in the ground and covered with earth, were rendered ſecure and warm by art. Some of theſe ſubterraneous houſes are ſtill remaining in Cornwall, and in the weſtern iſles of Scotland. The ſummer habitations of the moſt ancient Britons were very ſlight, and conſiſted only of a few ſtakes driven into the ground, interwoven with wattles, and covered with the boughs of trees. They next proceeded to form the walls of large beams of wood; which was the mode of building in Britain, when it was firſt invaded by the Romans. Theſe wooden houſes were not ſquare, but circular, with high tapering roofs, at the top of which was an aperture for the admiſſion of light and emiſſion of ſmoke. The foundations of ſome of the moſt magnificent of thoſe circular houſes, were of ſtone, of which there are ſome veſtiges ſtill remaining in Angleſey and other places. It was in imitation of theſe wooden houſes, that the moſt ancient ſtone edifices were built circular, and had a large aperture at the top. The palaces of the Britiſh princes were built of the ſame materials, and on the ſame plan, with the houſes of their ſubjects, and differed from them only in ſolidity and magnitude.

"What the Britons call a town," ſays Strabo, "is a track of woody country, ſurrounded by a mound and ditch, for the ſecurity of themſelves and cattle againſt the incurſions of their enemies." The foreſts of the Britons were their cities. For when they had incloſed a very large circuit with felled trees, they built within it houſes for themſelves, and hovels for their cattle. Theſe buildings were very ſlight, and not deſigned for long duration.

But as ſoon as the Romans begun to form ſettlements

ments and plant colonies in the iſland, a ſudden and ſurpriſing change enſued in the ſtate of architecture. The firſt Roman colony was planted at * Camalodunum, and was deſtroyed by the Britons in their great revolt under Boadicea, only eleven years after; it appears to have been a large and well-built town, adorned with ſtatues, temples, theatres, and other public edifices. But London affords a ſtill more ſtriking example of the rapid progreſs of the Roman architecture in this iſland. There was either no town in that place, or at moſt, only a Britiſh town or *incloſed foreſt*, at the time of the firſt Roman invaſion. But it had not been in the poſſeſſion of the Romans many years, before it became a rich, populous and beautiful city. A. D. 50.

A knowledge of the art of war being neceſſary, all the young men among the ancient Britons, as well as other Celtic nations, were trained to the uſe of arms from their early youth, continued in the exerciſe of them to their old age, and were always ready to appear when they were called by their leaders into actual ſervice. Their very diverſions and amuſements were of a martial and manly caſt, and contributed greatly to increaſe their agility, ſtrength, and courage; a circumſtance which is, perhaps, too much neglected in the military diſcipline of modern times.

Mankind have naturally a taſte for imitation, and from this taſte ſome of their moſt innocent pleaſures are derived. Of this kind are the two imitative arts of *ſculpture* and *painting*. The idea of forming images of men and other animals of clay and wax, and other ſoft ſubſtances, which are eaſily moulded into any form, is ſo natural and obvious, that the practice of it has been very ancient and univerſal. When the Britons had arrived at ſome dexterity at working in wood, they began to adorn theſe works with various figures; particularly their war chariots, which were curiouſly carved, and on which they laviſhed all their art.

* Caſtle Camps, five miles eaſt of Linton, and fifteen from Cambridge.

After

of death."* Sometimes, indeed, when the bards did not approve of a war, they ſung ſuch mild pacific ſtrains, as calmed the rage of two hoſtile armies ready to engage, and brought about a peace. "When two armies have been ſtanding in order of battle," ſays Diodorus Siculus, "with ſwords drawn and lances extended, on the point of engaging in a moſt furious conflict, theſe poets have ſtept in between them, and by their ſweet perſuaſive ſongs, have calmed their fury like that of wild beaſts." Thus, even among theſe fierce barbarians, rage gave way to wiſdom, and Mars yielded to the Muſes.

Next to the martial feats of heroes, the charms of the fair, and the cares and joys of virtuous love, were the moſt frequent and delightful ſubjects of the ſongs of the ancient Britiſh bards. Their deſcriptions of female beauty are always ſhort and delicate; expreſſive of the modeſty and innocence of the minds of the ladies, as well as of the charms of their perſons. "Half hid in her ſhady grove, Roſcrana raiſed the ſong. Her white hand roſe on the harp. I beheld her blue rolling eyes. She was like a ſpirit of heaven half-folded in the ſkirts of a cloud. She roſe bright amidſt my troubled ſoul. She came with bending eye, amidſt the wandering of her heavenly looks."†

The ancient inhabitants of Britain, as well as of many other countries, had at leaſt as great a taſte and fondneſs for muſic as they had for poetry. Muſic is natural to mankind, who have been accuſtomed to ſinging in all ages, and in all countries. Vocal muſic, perhaps in imitation of the feathered ſongſters of the woods and groves, was here, and every where, more ancient than inſtrumental. In the firſt ſtages of ſociety, the two ſiſter arts of poetry and muſic ſeem to have been always united; every poet was a muſician, and ſung his own verſes to the ſound of ſome muſical inſtrument. This was one of thoſe circumſtances, which rendered the muſic of the ancients ſo affecting, and en-

* Oſſian. † Ibid.

able

abled it to produce such strong emotions of rage, love, joy, grief, and other passions in the hearers, by conveying the pathetic strains of poetry to their hearts, in the most rousing, softening, joyous, or plaintive sounds.*

Though the ancient Britons were not altogether unacquainted with wind instruments of music, yet they seem to have delighted chiefly in the lyre or harp. This instrument is said to have been invented by the Scythians, and was much used by all the Celtic nations. They sung and played by the ear, and their tunes, as well as their poems, were handed down from one age to another.

CHAP. VI.

COMMERCE, COIN, AND SHIPPING OF BRITAIN IN THE EARLY AGES.

THE Phœnicians are generally believed to have been the inventors of navigation and foreign trade, and the instructors of other nations in their most useful arts. They were the boldest and most expert mariners, the greatest and most successful merchants of antiquity. Some writers are of opinion, that this island was discovered by that adventurous people before the Trojan war, and not long after it was first inhabited by colonies from the continent of Gaul. If we could be certain that the tin, in which the Tyrians or Phœnicians traded in the days of the prophet Ezekiel, was brought from Britain, we should be obliged to embrace this opinion.† But as we know that they found great quantities of tin, as well as of more precious metals in Spain, we cannot fix the æra of their arrival in Britain from this circumstance.

It is not probable that the Phœnicians planted any colonies, or built any cities in Britain and the adjacent islands, but contented themselves with making occa-

* Rollin. † Ezekiel, chap. 26, ver. 12.

ſional voyages into theſe parts of the world, for the ſake of trade; and this is the reaſon that ſo few veſtiges of them are to be found, even in thoſe parts of this iſland which they moſt frequented. The commodities exported by them, from this country, were tin, lead, and the ſkins both of wild and tame animals. Under this laſt article was comprehended the wool of the Britiſh ſheep, which hath been ſo excellent in all ages, and would be of great uſe to the Phœnicians in their woollen manufactures.

Though the Phœnicians were immenſely rich in gold and ſilver, yet they made no uſe of coin in their commerce with the people of Britain. That people had, in thoſe times, no idea of the nature or uſe of money; and the Phœnicians profited too much by their ignorance, to take any pains to inſtruct them in theſe particulars. They acted in the ſame manner towards the ancient Britons, as the Europeans acted towards the people of America, on their firſt diſcovery of that country. They gave them things of ſmall price, in exchange for their moſt valuable commodities. Their imports conſiſted of the three articles of ſalt, earthenware, and trinkets made of braſs. The firſt and ſecond of theſe articles were indeed uſeful, but of eaſy purchaſe, and were probably ſold at an exorbitant rate to the unſkilful Britons. The things made of braſs, were chiefly of the ornamental kind, as bracelets for their arms, chains for their necks, rings, and the like, of which the Britons were remarkably fond.

About 300 years before the birth of Chriſt, the Greeks began to trade into Britain, and chiefly exported tin, which yielded very great profits. For this metal was long held in high eſtimation in all parts of the world, on account of the facility with which it was manufactured, and the various uſes to which it was applied. It was even ſent into India, where none of it was to be found, and where they purchaſed it with their moſt precious diamonds.

Though the Britons had ſome iron when they were firſt invaded by the Romans, yet, as Cæſar obſerves, they

they had it only in ſmall quantities, hardly ſufficient for their home conſumption, and none to ſpare for exportation. But after the Romans had been ſome time ſettled in this iſland, this moſt uſeful metal became very plentiful, and made a part of the Britiſh exports.

Gems, and particularly pearls, which were eſteemed by the Romans the moſt precious and excellent of all things, were exported from Britain at this period. Julius Cæſar was ſo great an admirer of the Britiſh pearls, which he had ſeen in Gaul, that the hope of obtaining a quantity of them, as I have already obſerved, was his chief inducement to the invaſion of Britain. This much is certain, that after his return from this iſland, he conſecrated a breaſt-plate, of great value and beauty, to Venus, in her temple at Rome, which he ſignified by an inſcription, to be compoſed of Britiſh pearls. It ſeems probable that the pearls of Britain were inferior to thoſe of India and Arabia in general, though ſome of them might be remarkable for their ſize and beauty.

"The faireſt pearls grow on Britiſh coaſts."*

As Britain very much abounded in cattle of all kinds, we may be certain that they furniſhed the merchants of thoſe times with ſeveral articles for exportation. The Britiſh horſes were ſo beautiful, and ſo admirably trained, that they were much admired by the Romans, and exported for the ſaddles of their great men, and for mounting their cavalry. After the Romans had inſtructed the Britons in the art of making cheeſe, great quantities of it are ſaid to have been exported for the uſe of the Roman armies.

It will perhaps appear ridiculous to many readers, to be told, that the Britiſh dogs conſtituted no inconſiderable article in the exports of this period. But in the hunting and paſtoral ſtages of ſociety, theſe faithful animals are the favorite companions and moſt uſeful poſſeſſions of men; and even in a more advanced period of civilization, they contribute not a little to

* Gignit et inſignes antiqua Britannia baccas.

their amuſement. Thoſe dogs were of different kinds. But the greateſt numbers, and thoſe which bore the higheſt price, were deſigned for hunting, and excelled all others, both in their ſwiftneſs and exquiſite ſcent. They are thus deſcribed in a paſſage of Oppian:

" There is a kind of dogs of mighty fame
" For hunting, worthy of a fairer frame:
" By painted Britons brave in war they're bred,
" Are beagles call'd, and to the chaſe are led:
" Their bodies ſmall, and of ſo mean a ſhape,
" You'd think them curs, that under tables gape."

The goods imported into Britain, according to Strabo, were ivory bridles, gold chains, cups of amber, and drinking-glaſſes. But after the Roman conqueſt, the imports unavoidably became much more various and valuable. Beſides wine, ſpices, and many other articles for their tables, they were under a neceſſity of importing the greateſt number of their tools, arms, furniture, clothing, and many other things.

Thus all the trade of great Britain was carried on, for ſome ages, in the way of barter, or exchange of one commodity for another. When metals were firſt uſed as money, and made the common prices of all commodities, their value was determined only by their weight. The ſeller having agreed to accept of a certain quantity of gold, ſilver, or braſs for his goods, the buyer cut off that quantity from the plate or ingot of that metal in his poſſeſſion; and having weighed it, delivered it to the ſeller, and received the goods. But this method of tranſacting buſineſs was attended with much trouble, and liable to various frauds, both in the weight and fineneſs of the metals uſed in commerce. It was, therefore, ordained by the laws of ſeveral ancient nations, that all the metals uſed as money, ſhould be divided into ſmall pieces, and ſtamped with certain marks.

As a conſiderable number of gold coins were found in 1749, on the top of Karn-bre,* in Cornwall, which are clearly proved to have belonged to the ancient

* Bre ſignifies a hill.

Britons, it muſt certainly have been diſcovered that this iſland produced gold and ſilver not long after the firſt invaſion of the Romans. The figures that were firſt ſtamped on the coins of all nations, (eſpecially of thoſe nations, whoſe chief riches conſiſted in their flocks and herds,) were thoſe of oxen, horſes, hogs, and ſheep. From hence we may conclude, that thoſe coins of any country, which have only the figures of *cattle* ſtamped upon them, and perhaps of *trees*, repreſenting the woods in which their cattle paſtured, were the moſt ancient coins of that country. Some of the gold coins found at Karn-bre, and deſcribed by Dr. Borlaſe, are of this kind, and may therefore be juſtly eſteemed the *moſt ancient* of our Britiſh coins.

When ſovereigns became ſenſible of the great importance of money, and took the fabrication of it under their own direction, they ordered their own heads to be ſtamped on one ſide of their coins, while the figures of ſome animals ſtill continued to be impreſſed on the other ſide. Of this kind are ſome of the Karn-bre coins, with a royal head on one ſide, and a horſe on the other, which we may ſuppoſe to have been ſtruck in a more advanced ſtate of the Britiſh coinage.

When the knowledge and uſe of letters were once introduced into any country where money was coined, it would not be long before they appeared on its coins, expreſſing the names of the princes whoſe heads were impreſſed upon them, and of the places where they were coined, and other circumſtances. This was a very great improvement in the art of coining, and gave an additional value to the money, by making it preſerve the memories of princes, and afford light to hiſtory. Nor were our Britiſh anceſtors unacquainted with this great improvement, before they were ſubdued by the Romans. For ſeveral of our ancient Britiſh coins have very plain and perfect inſcriptions, and on that account merit particular attention.

Floats or *rafts* are believed, by moſt authors, to have been the firſt kind of water-carriage To theſe ſuc-

ceeded *canoes*, made of one very large tree *excavated*, to ſecure its freight from being wetted or waſhed away:

"*Tunc alnos primum fluvii ſenſere cavatas.*"

"Then firſt on ſeas the hollow alder ſwam."

As they wanted proper tools for ſawing large trees into planks, the moſt ancient veſſels or boats, in ſeveral countries, were made of oziers, and the flexible branches of trees interwoven as cloſe as poſſible, and covered with ſkins.* "The ſea which flows between Britain and Ireland is ſo unquiet and ſtormy, that it is only navigable in ſummer; when the people of theſe countries, paſs and repaſs it in ſmall boats made of wattles, and covered carefully with the hides of oxen."†

The ſingular form of theſe boats is, perhaps, the reaſon that they are ſo much taken notice of by ancient writers; while thoſe of a better form, are ſeldom mentioned. It is however very probable, that they were not altogether deſtitute of ſuch ſhips, even before they were invaded by the Romans. For we are told by Cæſar, "that the ſea-coaſts of Britain were poſſeſſed by colonies which had lately come from Gaul, and ſtill retained the names of the ſeveral ſtates from whence they came." Now as theſe colonies came with a deſign to make war, in order to force a ſettlement, they muſt have brought with them great numbers of armed men, together with their wives and children, and perhaps their moſt valuable effects. This could not be done without fleets of ſhips of greater capacity and ſtrength than the wicker-boats above deſcribed.

A. D. 61. After the Roman conqueſt, when London, in the reign of Nero, was become a great city, abounding in merchants and merchandize, it certainly abounded alſo in ſhipping. And when, in the year 359, no fewer than eight hundred ſhips were employed in the exportation of corn, the whole number employed in the Britiſh trade muſt have been very great.

* Cæſar. † Solinus.

Towards

Towards the end of the third century, when the Frank and Saxon pirates began to infeſt the ſeas, we may form ſome idea of the greatneſs of the Britiſh fleet, by obſerving the vaſt preparations that were made againſt them for ſeveral years. The emperor Conſtantius did not think it ſafe to put to ſea, nor to attempt the recovery of Britain, till he had collected a fleet of a thouſand ſail; and after all, his ſucceſs in that enterpriſe is aſcribed more to his good fortune in paſſing the Britiſh fleet in a thick fog, than to his ſuperior force.* The high encomiums beſtowed on Conſtantius, for this exploit of recovering Britain, afford another proof of its great importance, on account of its naval force. "O happy victory! (exclaims his panegyriſt) comprehending many victories and innumerable triumphs. By it Britain is reſtored, the Franks exterminated, and many nations which had conſpired together, are conſtrained to make ſubmiſſion. Rejoice, O invincible Cæſar! for thou haſt conquered another world, and by reſtoring the glory of the naval power of Rome, haſt added to her empire a greater element than the whole earth."

By the departure of the Romans, the Britons ſuffered as much in their maritime affairs, as in any reſpect whatever. The Roman fleets and garriſons being withdrawn, the Britiſh ſhips became an eaſy prey to the Frank and Saxon pirates at ſea, and were not ſecure even in their harbours. This obliged all the moſt wealthy merchants to retire into the interior provinces of the empire.

CHAP. VII.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF THE ANCIENT BRITONS.

THE hiſtory of manners is, perhaps, the moſt agreeable and entertaining part of hiſtory. They who

* Campbell's Lives of the Admirals.

delight in obſerving the various paſſions, foibles, and humours of mankind in real life, will peruſe with pleaſure a delineation of the manners, cuſtoms, and characters of nations, during their ſeveral periods.

The ancient Britons were remarkable for the ſize and ſtature of their bodies, and for their fair complexions. The women, in particular, excelled in the fairneſs and ſoftneſs of their perſons. One of theſe Britiſh beauties is compared, by the poet, "to the down of the Swan, when ſlow ſhe ſails the lake, and ſidelong winds are blowing."* The hair of the Caledonians, or North Britons, is ſaid to have been of a reddiſh caſt; and that of the Silures, or people of South Wales, moſt commonly curled.† All the Celtic nations had blue eyes, which were eſteemed very beautiful by the ancient Britons of both ſexes. Their voices, when they exerted them with a deſign to excite terror, were exceedingly loud, horrid, and frightful.—"Now Fingal aroſe in his might, and thrice he reared his voice. Cromla anſwered around, and the ſons of the deſert ſtood ſtill."‡

The Britons and other Celtic nations were no leſs remarkable for the ſtrength, than for the bulk of their bodies. The following deſcription of Fingal and Swaran wreſtling, muſt give us a high idea of the prodigious ſtrength of theſe two chieftains. "Their ſinewy arms bend round each other; they turn from ſide to ſide, and ſtrain and ſtretch their large ſpreading limbs below: But when the pride of their ſtrength aroſe, they ſhook the hill with their heels; rocks tumble from their places on high; the green headed buſhes are overturned." They excelled in running, ſwimming, wreſtling, climbing, and all kinds of bodily exercíſes. They could patiently endure the greateſt difficulties. "The Caledonians," ſays an accurate writer, "are accuſtomed to fatigues, to bear hunger, cold, and all manner of hardſhips. They run into the moraſſes up to the neck, and live there ſeveral days

* Poems of Oſſian. † Tacitus. ‡ Oſſian.

without

without eating."* But what many of the Roman hiſtorians have obſerved concerning the Gauls and Germans, was probably true likewiſe of the Britons; that they were not capable of bearing much heat or thirſt; and that they exerted their ſtrength with ſo much violence on their firſt aſſault upon an enemy, that it was ſoon exhauſted.

The following poetical picture of an ancient Briton, in the prime of his ſtrength and beauty, was drawn from the life by the hand of a maſter. "Was he white as the ſnow of Ardven? Blooming as the bow of the ſhower? Was his hair like the miſt of the hill, ſoft and curling in the day of the ſun? Was he like the thunder of heaven in battle? Fleet as the roe of the deſert?"†

Nature was no leſs liberal to the Britons in the faculties of their minds, than in the formation of their bodies. They were acute and ingenious, and very capable of acquiring any art or ſcience to which they applied. Julius Agricola loaded with praiſes the young men of Britain, who ſtudied the Roman language and learning, and declared that they excelled the youths of Gaul in genius.

Valour in war was the moſt admired and popular virtue of the ancient Britons. They were accuſtomed, almoſt from their infancy, to handle arms, and to ſing the glorious actions of their anceſtors. This inſpired their young hearts with impatient deſires to engage the enemy. As they advanced in years, they were made fully ſenſible, that every thing in life depended on their courage. The ſmiles of the fair, the favour of the great, the praiſes of the bards, the applauſes of the people, and even happineſs after death, were only to be obtained by brave and daring exploits in war.—"Mine arm reſcued the feeble, the haughty found my rage was fire. For this my fathers ſhall meet me at the gates of their airy halls, tall, with robes of light, with mildly-kindled eyes.‡"

* Strabo. † Oſſian. ‡ Oſſian.

They were no leſs remarkable than the other Celtic nations, for their love of liberty. To this powerful paſſion their leaders conſtantly addreſſed themſelves, in all their harangues; and by this were they animated to make ſo long and obſtinate a reſiſtance to their invading foes. The character which a celebrated hiſtorian gives of them, even after they had ſubmitted to the Roman government, before they were enervated by Roman luxury, is probably very juſt, and is certainly very honourable. "The Britons are a people who pay their taxes, and obey the laws with pleaſure, *provided no arbitrary and illegal demands are made upon them*; but theſe they cannot bear without the greateſt impatience: for they are only reduced to the ſtate of ſubjects, not of ſlaves.*

Hoſpitality was one of the moſt ſhining virtues of the ancient Britons. As ſoon as they beheld the face of a ſtranger, they felt the ſincereſt joy at his arrival, accoſted him in the moſt friendly manner, and gave him the warmeſt invitations to enter their doors, which flew open for his reception. It was even long eſteemed infamous for a chieftain to ſhut the door of his houſe at all; leſt, as the bards expreſſed it, *the ſtranger ſhould come and behold his contracted ſoul.* As ſoon as a ſtranger accepted the friendly invitation, and entered the hoſpitable door, water was preſented to him to waſh his feet; and if he received and uſed it, and at the ſame time delivered his arms to the maſter of the houſe, it was underſtood as an intimation that he deſigned to favour him with his company for ſome time, at leaſt for one night. This diffuſed joy over the whole manſion. The muſic of the harp began, and an entertainment was immediately prepared and ſerved up, as ſumptuous and plentiful as the entertainer could afford. As long as the ſtranger ſtaid, his perſon was eſteemed ſacred and inviolable, the ſeaſon was devoted to feſtivity, and every amuſement in the power of his hoſt was deviſed, to make him paſs his time agreeably, and prolong his ſtay.

* Tacitus.

Hoſpitality

Hoſpitality of a ſimilar kind continued to be practiſed long after this period, by the genuine poſterity of the ancient Britons in Wales and the iſlands of Scotland; nor is it quite baniſhed from ſome of the moſt unfrequented parts of theſe countries, even to this day.

Our Britiſh anceſtors were famous for the warmth of their natural affections, their duty to their parents and ſuperiors, and their inviolable attachment to their friends and family. All the young men of a clan, or family, treated the old men with the reſpect due to parents; and thoſe of the ſame age behaved towards one another as brothers. Nothing could equal the reſpect, affection, and firm attachment, which every family bore to its head or chieftain. For his ſafety and honour, every one of his friends and followers was ready to expoſe his own life to the moſt imminent danger. In a word, all the members of a clan were animated with one ſpirit: and whoever did an injury or offered an affront to one of them, drew upon himſelf the reſentment of the whole. This family affection, or clanſhip, is hardly yet extinguiſhed in ſome parts of this iſland*.

Their new born infants were plunged into ſome lake or river, even in the winter ſeaſon, with a view to try the ſtrength of their conſtitutions, and to harden their bodies. The Britons might therefore, on this account, have adopted the beautiful ſpeech of Numanus, the Rutilian, who was of the Celtic race:

" Strong from the cradle, of a ſturdy brood,
" We bear our new-born infants to the flood;
" There bath'd amid the ſtream our boys we hold,
" With winter harden'd, and inur'd to cold†.

Every woman nurſed her own children, without having the leaſt idea that it was poſſible for any other woman to perform that parental office. The ſons of all ranks of men were allowed to run, wreſtle, jump, ſwim, climb, and, in a word, to do what they pleaſed, without any reſtraint, till they began to advance to-

* Macpherſon. † Dryden's Virgil.

wards manhood. To this continual exercise and perfect liberty, together with the simplicity of their diet, Cæsar ascribes the great strength of body, and boldness of spirit, to which the youth of these nations attained.

As war was the favourite profession of the ancient Britons, they had many remarkable customs in the prosecution of it. When an unfortunate chieftain implored the protection and assistance of another, he approached the place of his residence with a bloody shield in one hand, to intimate the death of his friends, and a broken spear in the other, to represent his own incapacity to revenge it. When one chieftain entered the territories of another on a friendly visit, he and his followers carried their spears inverted, with their points behind them; but when they came with an hostile intention, they carried them with the points before. An invading army never neglected to draw blood from the first animal they met on the enemy's ground, and to sprinkle it upon their colours*. When two hostile armies lay near to each other, it was the constant custom of the commanders of both, to retire from their troops, and spend the night before a battle in meditating on the dispositions they intended to make during the approaching action. When two British kings or chiefs made peace, or entered into an alliance, they generally confirmed the agreement by feasting together, by exchanging arms, and sometimes by drinking a few drops of each other's blood; which was esteemed a most sacred and inviolable bond of friendship.

The tender affection which subsists among near relations and dear friends, has, in all ages and countries, disposed the survivors to pay certain honours to their deceased friends, and to commit their remains to the earth with some peculiar rites and ceremonies. It was the custom of the British nations in the South, and of the Gauls, to throw into the funeral pile on which the body was burnt, those things, and even those animals

* Martin's Western Islands.

in

in which the deceaſed had moſt delighted; nay, they ſometimes threw into the flaming pile ſuch of his ſervants and friends as had been his greateſt favourites, and all were reduced to aſhes together in the ſame fire. When they buried their aſhes, they buried likewiſe with them their books of accounts, and the notes of hand for the ſums of money which they had lent whilſt alive, that they might exact the payment of them in the other world. The ſepulchral urns were, for the moſt part, depoſited under barrows, or large circular heaps of earth and ſtones. But as the bones of men lying at full length, and without any marks of burning, have been found in ſome barrows, it appears, that on ſome occaſions the South-Britons buried their dead without burning*. This was the conſtant practice of the Caledonians, or Britons of the North, whoſe manner of burying their dead is thus deſcribed by one who had the beſt opportunities of being acquainted with their cuſtoms: "They opened a grave ſix or eight feet deep; the bottom was lined with fine clay, on which they laid the body of the deceaſed; and, if a warrior, his ſword and the heads of twelve arrows by his ſide. Above they laid another ſtratum of clay, in which they placed the horn of a deer, the ſymbol of hunting. The whole was covered with a fine mould; and four ſtones placed on end, to mark the extent of the grave. The bows of warriors, as well as their ſwords and arrows, were depoſited in their graves. Theſe graves were marked ſometimes only with one, and ſometimes with two ſtones; and ſometimes a cairn or barrow was raiſed over them. The favourite dogs of the deceaſed were often buried near them †. But the moſt important and eſſential rite of ſepulture among the ancient Britons, was the funeral ſong, containing the praiſes of the deceaſed, ſung by a number of bards, to the muſic of their harps, when the body was depoſited in the grave. To want a funeral ſong was eſteemed the greateſt misfortune and diſgrace; as they be-

* Borlaſe's Antiquities. † Macpherſon.

lieved

lieved that without it, their ſpirits could enjoy no reſt or happineſs in a future ſtate.

The language of the ancient Britons, when they were firſt invaded by the Romans, was a dialect of the Celtic, which had been the language of all the nations of Europe deſcended from Gomer, and ſtill continued to be ſpoken by the people of Gaul, and ſeveral other countries. A convincing proof of this is, that the names of moſt rivers, brooks, hills, mountains, towns, and cities, in all parts of this iſland, are ſignificant in that language, and deſcriptive of their ſituations, properties and appearances. For the *firſt inhabitants* of every country are under a neceſſity of giving names immediately to thoſe objects about which they have daily occaſion to converſe; and theſe primitive names are naturally no other than brief deſcriptions of the moſt ſtriking appearances, and obvious properties of theſe objects, in their native tongue. Dialects of the Celtic, once the univerſal language of Britain, ſtill continue to be ſpoken in Wales, in the Highlands and weſtern iſlands of Scotland, and in Ireland, as well as in ſome places on the continent. For though the Romans endeavoured to introduce not only their laws and government, but alſo their language, into all the countries which they conquered, they failed in this laſt attempt in ſeveral provinces of their empire, and particularly in Britain. Some of the noble youth of the provincial Britons were prevailed upon to learn the Latin tongue, and to ſtudy the Roman eloquence. But even theſe did not diſcontinue the uſe of their native language, and the body of the people neither underſtood nor ſpoke any other. As the Romans never conquered the Caledonians, or northern Britons, they cannot be ſuppoſed to have made any change in their language, which is now ſpoken by their poſterity in the Highlands, with leſs variation from the original Celtic than in any other part of Europe.

With regard to dreſs, though the firſt inhabitants of every country go almoſt naked, yet the decent cuſtom of wearing clothes of ſome kind or other had become very

very general in Britain, before it was invaded by the Romans. The Caledonians, indeed, are said to have been naked, in the beginning of the third century. As the Romans, however, hardly ever saw them, but in a warlike posture, or engaged in some military expedition, they might imagine them to be naked, when they were not absolutely so; because it was the constant custom of that people to throw off nearly all their clothes before they advanced to battle, that they might not be incumbered by them in the action. It is very common, both in writing and conversation, to say a person is naked, who is very meanly or thinly clothed.

The upper garment of the ancient Britons, and of all the other Celtic nations, was the mantle or plaid. This was a piece of cloth of a square form, and sufficiently large to cover the whole body. It was fastened upon the breast, or one of the shoulders, with a clasp; or instead of that, with a thorn, or sharp pointed piece of wood. As this garment succeeded the mantles made of the skins of some of the larger animals, which had formerly been worn by all the Celtic nations, it was made to imitate these skins in their shape and form; and in several countries, particularly in Britain, those who were poor, or less civilized, still continued to wear skins, while those who were more wealthy, or more improved, were clad in plaids. Close trowsers, called Braxe,* (very much resembling our *pantaloons*), were next introduced. These trowsers, which were both graceful and convenient, and discovered the fine shape and turn of their limbs to great advantage, were used by the genuine posterity of the Caledonian Britons in the Highlands of Scotland till very lately, and are hardly yet laid aside in some remote corners of that country. They likewise wore a vest, or tunic, adjusted exactly to the shape and size of the body, fastened before with clasps, and reaching no lower than the groin. These vests had also sleeves, which covered the arms, at first only as far as the elbows, but after-

* Party-coloured cloth.

wards

wards down to the wriſts. For ſome time after this garment was invented, it was uſed only by perſons of rank and wealth, but by degrees it came into common uſe. They had no other ſhoes but a piece of the ſkin of a horſe, cow, or other animal, tied about the feet, with the hair outwards.

The ancient Britons were extremely proud of the length and beauty of their hair. It is ſaid to have been the laſt and moſt earneſt requeſt of a young warrior, who was taken priſoner and condemned to be beheaded, that no ſlave might be permitted to touch his hair, and that it might not be ſtained with his blood. We hardly ever meet with a deſcription of a fine woman or handſome man, in the poems of Oſſian, in which their hair is not mentioned as one of their greateſt beauties. Not contented with the natural colour of their hair, which was commonly fair or yellow, they made uſe of certain waſhes to make it ſtill brighter. One of theſe was a compoſition of lime, the aſhes of ſome vegetables, and tallow. They ſhaved all their beards, except their upper lips; the hair of which they allowed to grow to a very incovenient length.

Moſt of the inhabitants of this iſland lived, for ſome time, on the ſpontaneous productions of the earth, in their natural ſtate, with little or no preparation. At the time of the Roman invaſion, however, they had great herds of cattle and flocks of ſheep, whoſe fleſh and milk yielded them a variety of ſubſtantial diſhes. "They uſed little bread at their entertainments, but a great deal of fleſh, which they either boiled in water, broiled on the coals, or roaſted on ſpits*." They had alſo veniſon, game, and poultry of all kinds, though they were reſtrained by ſome ſuperſtitious fancy, from uſing as food, either hares, hens, or geeſe†. They were not ignorant of the art of ſalting fleſh; but their ſalt had a very different appearance from ours, and was made by the following proceſs. They raiſed a pile of trees, chiefly oaks and hazels, ſet it on fire, and re-

* Diodorus Siculus. † Cæſar.

duced

duced it to charcoal; upon which, while it was ſtill red-hot, they poured a certain quantity of ſalt water, which converted the whole maſs into a kind of ſalt of a black colour*.

The Caledonians had the art of roaſting their acorns and other wild fruits, grinding them into meal, and making them into a kind of bread. The following account of their manner of dreſſing veniſon, for a feaſt, may ſerve as a ſufficient ſpecimen of their cookery. A pit, lined with ſmooth ſtones, was made, and near it ſtood a heap of flint ſtones. The ſtones, as well as the pit, were properly heated with heath. Then they laid ſome veniſon in the bottom, and a ſtratum of ſtones above it, and thus they did alternately, till the pit was full. The whole was covered over with heath, to confine the ſteam. This was evidently a very laborious proceſs, and required the aſſiſtance of many hands. Accordingly, the greateſt heroes did not diſdain to aſſiſt in preparing the feaſt of which they were to partake. "It was on Cromla's ſhaggy ſide, that Douglas placed the deer: the early fortune of the chace, before the heroes left the hill. An hundred youths collect the heath; ten heroes blow the fire; three hundred chuſe the poliſhed ſtones. The feaſt is ſmoking wide†."

Water was the only drink of the moſt ancient inhabitants of this iſland: but it was not long before they began to uſe the milk of animals, as being more warm, pleaſant, and nouriſhing. Previous to the introduction of agriculture, mead, or honey diluted with water, and fermented, was the only ſtrong liquor known to the Britons. This continued to be a favourite beverage among them, long after they had become acquainted with other liquors. The *mead-maker* was the eleventh perſon in dignity in the courts of the ancient prince of Wales, and took place of the *phyſician*. The following ancient law of the principality ſhews how much this liquor was eſteemed by the Britiſh princes:

* Pliny. † Oſſian's Poems.

"There

" There are three things in the court which muſt be communicated to the king before they are made known to any other perſon, namely, *every ſentence of the judge, every new ſong, and every caſk of mead.*" This was perhaps the liquor, which is called, by Oſſian, the joy and ſtrength of the ſhells, with which his heroes were ſo much delighted.

After the introduction of agriculture, ale or beer became the moſt general drink of all the Britiſh nations, as it had been of all the Celtic people on the continent. " All the nations," ſays Pliny, " who inhabit the weſt of Europe, have a liquor with which they intoxicate themſelves, made of corn and water. So exquiſite is the cunning of mankind, in gratifying their various appetites, that they have thus invented a method to make water itſelf intoxicate."

If the Phœnicians or Greeks imported any wine into Britain, it was only in very ſmall quantities. That moſt generous liquor was very little known in this iſland, before it was conquered by the Romans. After that period, wine was not only imported from the continent in conſiderable quantities, but ſome attempts were made to cultivate vines, and to make wine in Britain.

Breakfaſt and ſupper were the only meals of the ancient Britons, at the latter of which they ate and drank with great freedom, and often to exceſs. The gueſts ſat in a circle upon the ground, with a little hay, graſs, or the ſkin of ſome animal under them. Every gueſt took the meat ſet before him in his hands, and tearing it with his teeth, fed upon it in the beſt manner he could. If any part of the meat could not be eaſily ſeparated, a large knife lay in a particular place for the benefit of the whole company. The diſhes in which the meat was ſerved up, were either of wood, or earthenware, or baſkets made of oſiers. Theſe laſt were moſt uſed by the Britons, as they very much excelled in the art of making them, both for their own uſe, and for exportation. Their drinking veſſels were made of the horns of oxen and other animals: but thoſe of the

Caledonians

Caledonians conſiſted of large ſhells, which are ſtill uſed by ſome of their poſterity in the Highlands of Scotland.

They indulged themſelves in feaſting as often as they had an opportunity. No public aſſembly was held, either for civil or religious purpoſes, no birth-day, marriage, or funeral could be celebrated, no treaty of peace or alliance could be properly cemented without a *great feaſt*. It was by frequent entertainments of this kind that the great men, or chieftains, gained the affections and rewarded the ſervices of their followers; and thoſe who made the greateſt feaſts were ſure to be moſt popular. Theſe feaſts generally laſted ſeveral days, and the gueſts ſeldom retired till they had conſumed all the proviſions, and exhauſted all the liquors. Athenæus deſcribes an entertainment given by a very wealthy prince, which continued a whole year without interruption, and at which all who had an inclination to come, were made welcome. Theſe convivial meetings were accompanied with muſic and dancing. When the feaſt of ſhells was prepared, the ſongs of bards aroſe. The voice of ſprightly mirth was heard. The trembling harps of joy were ſtrung, and the youth of both ſexes danced for the entertainment of the company.

As hunting was an introduction to the art of war, it became a favourite diverſion of the ancient Britons. By this exercife the young chieftains paid their court to the fair objects of their love, by diſplaying their agility before them, and making them preſents of their game. So ſtrong and univerſal was their paſſion for hunting, that young ladies of the higheſt rank and greateſt beauty ſpent much of their time in the chace. "Comhal was the ſon of Albion, the chief of an hundred hills. One was his love, and fair was ſhe, the daughter of mighty Conloch. Her bow-ſtring ſounded on the winds of the foreſt. Their courſe in the chace was one, and happy were their words in ſecret*."

* Oſſian.

CHAP.

CHAP. VIII.

MISCELLANEOUS INFORMATION RESPECTING THE ANCIENT BRITONS.

THE armories of the Britons were furniſhed with helmets, coats of mail, ſhields and chariots, and with ſpears, daggers, ſwords, battle-axes, and bows. The helmet, coat of mail, and chariot were confined to the chiefs, whilſt the common ſoldiers always fought on foot. The ſhield was like the target of our preſent Highlanders, ſlight, generally round, and always boſſy. The ſword was like that of the ſame mountaineers, large, heavy, and unpointed. The dagger was ſimilar to their dirk. The Britiſh chariots had their wheels frequently furniſhed with ſcythes, like the Gallic, were always drawn by two horſes, and carried ſometimes two perſons, the driver and the warrior, and ſometimes only one.

The Romans do not appear to have foſtered any prejudices in the Britons, againſt the habits of their fathers. They did not endeavour, with the policy of the Tartar conquerors of China, to aſſimilate the natives to themſelves in the diſtinguiſhing exteriors of dreſs. The general drapery of the nation was Britiſh, improved only with ſome additions from the Roman wardrobe. The Britiſh gentlemen, like the Gallic, retained their ancient ornament of chains; and the Britons, in general, did not adopt the Roman *pileus* as a covering for the head, but continued the uſe of their own caps, and ſuch bonnets as are ſtill worn by the peaſants in Scotland.

The privileges of the great officers of the Britiſh court were particularly ſtriking. They were all preſented annually with a piece of linen and woollen cloth by the king and queen, and regularly gratified beſides with old clothes from the royal wardrobe. The king's riding coat was three times a year given away to the

the maſter of the mews; his caps, ſaddles, bits, and ſpurs became the perquiſite of the maſter of the horſe; and the chamberlain appropriated to himſelf his old clothes and old bed-quilts. The chamberlain of our own court, even in the reign of Edward the firſt, by ancient cuſtom received the king's old coverlets, curtains, and bedding. Even to this day he receives at a coronation the furniture of the chamber, the bed, and the bed-dreſs, in which the ſovereign ſlept the night before*. But in the palaces of the Britons, this principle was carried ſo far, that even the wardrobe of the officers was in ſome caſes inheritable by their inferiors. Theſe were not all their privileges. They had a right to ſtated meſſes of meat, when they gave entertainments in their own apartments; the preſident of the palace being empowered to command three diſhes and three horns of the beſt liquor, and the maſter of the mews three horns and one diſh. But the latter was cautiouſly required to bring his cup in perſon to the hall, at every repletion of it, leſt he ſhould drink too much, and neglect his birds. And if the maſter of the mews, in the king's preſence, killed one of the three birds that were denominated noble, the king was bound to aſſiſt him in diſmounting and remounting, and to hold his horſe while he took the game. But if he killed it in the abſence of the king, he was required to haſten to the palace, and preſent the game to his majeſty; and, by the etiquette of the court, the king roſe up in compliment to him, or elſe gave him the mantle which he wore.

The vitrification of ſand by the force of fire, which forms one of the moſt pleaſing diſcoveries in the whole circle of domeſtic improvements, was at firſt merely the conſequence of chance. Such have been almoſt all the great diſcoveries of man, as well as that of glaſs. Sand being vitrified by an accidental fire, art imitated the work of caſualty†. Annulets of this metal have been diſcovered in various parts of our iſland, having

* Howel. † Pliny.

a narrow

all the north of Scotland. But hares had always been; and though they were only uſed for the purpoſes of divination, yet they were kept about the courts of the chiefs, from the delight which they took in breeding them. The idea of a hare-warren, and the model of a *park*, were originally derived to us from the primæval Britons. The cuckow juſt fledged, was reckoned by the Romans of the firſt century, to excel every other ſpecies of birds in the taſte of its fleſh. Here it is not conſidered as a bird for the table, but has been eaten by a few curious adventurers in feaſting, and is ſaid to be a delicate diſh. The Italians retain the fondneſs of their anceſtors for it to this day.

After the introduction of commerce, the ſide-tables of the old Britons were decorated with conſiderable ſplendor. On them were to be ſeen drinking cups of various ſizes, and in number equal to thoſe who ſat at table. One of the cups was generally of ſilver, and the reſt of wood, horn, and earth. The better ſort ſat at a table in the centre of the great hall. Their dependents, completely armed, as if on guard, formed a wider circle, and regaled themſelves, at the ſame time, on long benches very little raiſed from the ground. When they had done eating, the moſt honourable man at the feaſt called for a cup of ale, and drank to the next on his right hand; and the ſame cup being filled to the brim to each perſon, went round the whole circle. The gueſts brought along with them their own knives and forks, which hung from the girdle in the ſame ſheath with the dagger, which is called the *bidoc* by the ancient Scots. On ſome particular occaſions, the hoſpitable chief placed parties of men on the bye-roads of the country, to bring paſſengers, by a kind of compulſion, to his table *.

Cock-fighting is a recreation univerſally ſuppoſed to be the production of the Britiſh genius. But it was known to many of the ancients, and introduced among us by the Romans; and the uncommon bravery, which

* Macpherſon.

has

has always diſtinguiſhed our Britiſh breed, would ſoon induce theſe conquerors of the world, fond as they were of barbarous diverſions, to train them up for the pit, to direct their courage againſt their brethren, and arm them with artificial ſpurs. Such exhibitions were leſs cruel in their nature, than their execrable ſhows of gladiators, and nearly the ſame, in the ſcale of humanity, with their baiting of the wolf, the bull, and the bear. And, as more than one of the cities of Britain built a large amphitheatre for the latter, ſo others of them would naturally erect a ſmall one for the former. One at leaſt ſeems to have been conſtructed for it; and that is the little circle of gravel, and ſand, placed upon an eminence, directly fronting the eye as we go from Sandwich to Richborough caſtle.

The horſe was originally an inhabitant of Britain, but the aſs was not. It bore a conſiderable price among the Romans and Spaniards; and though its milk was not applied among the former to the purpoſes of medicine, it was early converted to the uſes of vanity. In the higher period of their empire, it was ſuppoſed by the ladies to contribute much, as a waſh, towards whitening their ſkin. Nero's conſort kept a train of 500 milch-aſſes in conſtant attendance upon her, and her bath continually repleniſhed with their milk*.

The magic rites, which were practiſed in our iſland, at this period, with ſuch a wild ſolemnity, were merely the mixt effuſions of medicine and ſuperſtition, each acting upon the other, and both heightening the whole. The three following plants were particularly the favourites of the druids. Samol was thought a remedy for all the diſeaſes in cattle, vervain was a cure for every diſorder in man, and the miſſetoe was denominated the *All-healing plant*. Thus the vulgar mind, we ſee at preſent, is ready to receive every medicine obtruded upon it by the hand of quackery, as equally applicable in all the ſtages of a diſorder, and certainly

* Plin.

ſucceſsful in all its operations. The miſletoe of the oak is to this day conſidered as a curioſity by our naturaliſts, and within a century and a half was reputed very medicinal by our phyſicians.

The Britiſh females, after the introduction of ſpinning, were ſo conſtantly employed at the diſtaff, that the ſpindle became the ſymbol of the ſex; and ſtill in England, when the banns of matrimony are publiſhed, thoſe women, who have not been formerly married, are called *ſpinſters*. When a Britiſh virgin was marriageable, the lover addreſſed himſelf firſt to the father of the maid, and requeſted his daughter in marriage. And if he agreed to the overture, he opened "*the hall of the maid*," the apartment in which ſhe generally ſat, retired from the men of the family, and introduced the ſuitor to his daughter. The period of courtſhip among the Britiſh women appears to have been generally as ſhort as it was in the patriarchal age. A few days concluded the ſuit. The abſolute authority of the father took away all power of refuſal from the daughter; and, if ſhe diſliked the lover whom he recommended, ſhe had no other reſource than the tears of entreaty, or the dangers of flight. The huſband was entitled either corporally to chaſtiſe his wife, or to require a legal ſatisfaction from her, for *three crimes*, infidelity to his bed, embezzling his goods, or abuſing his beard*.

With regard to rites of ſepulture, we ſhall here mention a very ancient one, which in ſome caſes, is ſtill retained. Many of the barrows, or repoſitories of the dead, were covered with heaps of ſmall ſtones. At the preſent period, when a wretch dies by the act of ſuicide in Ireland, and is buried, as in England, at the interſection of two highways, the paſſengers, for ſome time after, have a cuſtom of throwing ſtones upon their graves, till they have raiſed a conſiderable heap over them. But the original cuſtom is ſtill more perfectly preſerved in Scotland. If a perſon there ſuddenly falls down dead, or loſes his life by any accident

* Howel.

on

on his journey, whether it happen on a road or in a field, a rude heap of ſtones is immediately thrown together upon the ſpot, by the firſt who diſcovers it, and the common people contribute to increaſe the pile, by adding each of them a ſtone to it. And there are ſome perſons ſo religiouſly ſcrupulous in this reſpect, that they will turn out of their way for a quarter of a mile, in order to fetch a ſtone for the purpoſe; as the neglect, they apprehend, will be puniſhed by ſome ſubſequent misfortune to them.

The barrows, or graves of our brave anceſtors, have been generally preſerved inviolate in our own times, by the reſpect which the religious principles of the Britons beſtowed upon them. Of this we have very lively traces remaining among the Highlanders at preſent. They are firmly perſuaded to this moment, that if a dead body ſhall be known to lie unburied, or to be removed from its ſepulchre either by malice or accident, and immediate care be not taken for the interment of it, ſtorms and tempeſts will ariſe to deſtroy their corn, overturn their cabins, and carry deſolation through the country. And the late conſtruction of the military roads in Scotland afforded a remarkable proof of this notion. An enormous ſtone, which croſſed the intended line of one of the roads, being removed, a Britiſh ſepulchre was found below, containing aſhes, fragments of bones, and half-burnt ſtalks of heath. As ſoon as it was known to the Highlanders of the country, they aſſembled in arms even from the diſtant parts of it, and forming themſelves into a body, carefully collected the relics, marched with them in ſolemn proceſſion to a new place of burial, and there paid the military honours to the deceaſed by diſcharging their muſkets over his grave*.

Many of the northern tribes excluded women from their future paradiſe, in order as they expreſſed it, "to prevent brawls and contentions in the ſeats of the

* Birt's Letters.

bleſſed†." But the ſofter ſex, among the Britons and other Celtic nations, paſſed with their friends to the fortunate iſles, and enjoyed the converſation of their huſbands and lovers in the regions of bliſs. Their beauty increaſed with their change, and, to uſe the words of the bard, "They were ruddy lights in the iſland of joy."

† Ne rixis earum omnia gaudia verterentur.

BOOK II.

CHAP. I.

MILITARY HISTORY FROM THE ARRIVAL OF THE SAXONS, A. D. 449, TO THE NORMAN CONQUEST, A. D. 1066.

MANKIND, in the poſſeſſion of preſent good, are apt to overlook the proſpect of future evil. The Britons did not foreſee that their deliverers were to be their conquerors. The Saxons, however, after ſubduing the Scots and Picts, ſoon pulled off the maſk. They complained that their ſubſidies were ill paid, and demanded larger ſupplies of corn and other proviſions. Theſe being refuſed, as exorbitant, they proceeded to open hoſtilities againſt the people they had come to protect. Many battles were fought with various ſucceſs, in one of which the Saxon general, Horſa was ſlain. The ſole command now devolved upon Hengiſt, who carried deſolation to the moſt remote poſſeſſions of the Britons. Anxious to ſpread the terror of his arms, he ſpared neither age, ſex, nor condition. Of the unhappy Britons who eſcaped the general ſlaughter, ſome took refuge among inacceſſible rocks and mountains; many periſhed by hunger; and many, forſaking their aſylum, preſerved their lives at the expence of their liberty. In this extremity, a Britiſh and a Chriſtian hero appeared. Arthur, prince of the Silures, revived the expiring valour of his countrymen, and defeated the Saxons in ſeveral engagements. But after many bloody wars, in which the Britons were ſometimes the enemies and ſometimes the allies of the Scots and Picts, the Saxons became maſters of all Eng-

A. D. 584. land to the South of Adrian's wall; but the Scots and Picts seem to have been masters of all the territory to the north, though they suffered the Britons, who had been driven into their territories, to be governed by their own tributary kings.

History affords an example of few conquests more bloody, and few revolutions so violent as that effected by the Saxons. In the course of their wars with the Britons, they established many separate kingdoms, the seventh and last of which was that of Northumberland. The names of the other kingdoms were Kent, Suffex, Essex, Wessex, Mercia, and East Anglia. These seven kingdoms formed what is commonly called the Saxon Heptarchy*. To relate the separate history of each particular nation that formed the Heptarchy, would afford little instruction or entertainment. Jealousies and dissensions arose among the Saxon chiefs, and these were followed by perpetual wars, which are no more worthy of the historian's notice, than the *combats of crows and kites*†. After a variety of inferior revolutions, the seven kingdoms of the Saxon Heptarchy were united under Egbert, king of Wessex, in the year 827. His dominions were nearly of the same extent with what is now properly called *England*; a name which was given to the empire of the Saxons in Britain, immediately after the termination of the Heptarchy.

Egbert was succeeded by his son Ethelwolf, who divided his power with his eldest son Athelstan. No inconveniencies seem to have arisen from this partition; the terror of the Danish invaders preventing all domestic dissensions. Time proved that this terror was but too just; for the Danes, though often repulsed, and sometimes defeated, always obtained their end, by committing plunder, and carrying off their booty. They avoided coming to a general engagement, which was not suited to their plan of operations. Their vessels being small, ran easily up the creeks and rivers.

* See Introduction. † Milton.

They

They drew them aſhore, and formed an entrenchment round them, leaving them under a guard. They ſcattered themſelves over the face of the country in ſmall parties, making ſpoil of every thing that came in their way; goods, cattle, and women. If oppoſed by a ſuperior force they betook themſelves to their veſſels, ſet ſail, and invaded ſome diſtant quarter, not prepared for their reception. All England was kept in continual alarm: nor durſt the inhabitants of one part go to the aſſiſtance of another, leſt their own families and poſſeſſions ſhould be expoſed to the fury of the ravagers. Every ſeaſon of the year was alike: no man could reckon on a moment's ſafety. Encouraged by their paſt ſucceſſes, the Danes at length landed in ſo large a body as ſeemed to threaten the whole iſland with ſubjection. But the Anglo-Saxons, though labouring under the weight of ſuperſtition, were ſtill a gallant people. They rouſed themſelves with a vigour proportioned to the neceſſity, and defeated their invaders in ſeveral engagements. The Danes, however, ventured for the firſt time, to take up their winter quarters in England; and receiving in the ſpring a ſtrong reinforcement, A. D. 852. on board 350 veſſels, they advanced from the iſle of Thanet, where they had ſtationed themſelves, and burnt the cities of London and Canterbury.

The harraſſed ſtate of this kingdom did not hinder Ethelwolf from making a pilgrimage to Rome, to which he carried his youngeſt ſon, Alfred, founder of the Engliſh conſtitution. In his return, after a twelvemonth ſpent in devotions and benefactions to the ſee of Rome, he conferred a perpetual and very important donation on the church, by granting to the clergy a tenth out of all the produce of the land. Ethelwolf lived only two years after his return to England, which he left by his will to be divided between his two eldeſt ſons. Ethelbert, the ſurviving ſon, was ſucceeded by his brother Ethelred, in whoſe time, notwithſtanding the courage and conduct of Alfred, the

Danes became masters of the sea-coasts, and the finest counties in England.

Ethelred having been killed, his brother *Alfred* mounted the throne, in the year 872. He was one of the greatest princes, both in peace and war, mentioned in history. He fought seven battles with the Danes with various success, and when defeated, he found resources that rendered him as terrible as before. He was, however, at one time reduced to a state of uncommon distress, being forced to live in the disguise of a cowherd. Yet he still kept up a secret correspondence with his brave friends, and made frequent sallies upon the Danes, who often felt the vigour of his arm, but knew not from whence the blow came, nor by whom it was directed. At length a prosperous event emboldened the royal fugitive to leave his retreat, and enter on a scene of action more worthy of himself. Oddune, earl of Devonshire, being besieged in his castle by Hubba, a celebrated Danish general, made an unexpected sally upon the enemy, put them to the rout, and pursued them with great slaughter; killed Hubbo himself, and got possession of the famous *Raven*, an enchanted standard, in which the Danes put great confidence. The account of this victory was immediately carried by the faithful earl to Alfred, who was happy to find the seeds of valour beginning to revive among his subjects. But before he would assemble them in arms, he resolved to inspect the situation of the enemy, and judge of the probability of success, as an unfortunate attempt, in the present state of national despondency, must have terminated in final ruin. In consequence of this resolution, he entered the Danish camp under the disguise of a harper, and passed unsuspected through every quarter. He observed the supine security of the ravagers, their contempt of the English, and their neglect of all military regulations. Encouraged by these propitious appearances, he sent secret intelligence to his most powerful subjects, and summoned them to assemble, along with their retainers, on the borders of Selwood-forest. The English, who instead

inſtead of ending their calamities by ſubmiſſion, as they fondly hoped, had found the inſolence and rapine of the conquerors more intolerable than the fatigues of war, joyfully reſorted to the place of rendezvous. They ſaluted their beloved monarch with burſts of applauſe. They could not ſatiate their eyes with the ſight of a prince, whom they had believed dead, and who now appeared as their deliverer. They begged to be led to *liberty* and vengeance.

Alfred did not ſuffer their ardour to cool. He conducted them inſtantly to Eddington, where the Danes lay encamped; and, taking advantage of his previous knowledge of the enemy's ſituation, he directed his attack againſt the moſt unguarded quarter. Surpriſed to ſee an army of Engliſhmen, whom they conſidered as totally ſubdued, and ſtill more to find Alfred at their head, the Danes made but a feeble reſiſtance, notwithſtanding their ſuperior numbers. They were ſoon put to flight, and routed with great ſlaughter. Alfred, no leſs generous than brave, and who knew as well how to govern as to conquer, took the remainder of the Daniſh army, and their prince Guthrum under his protection. He granted them their lives on ſubmiſſion, and liberty to ſettle in the kingdoms of Northumberland and Eaſt Anglia*, which were entirely deſolated by the frequent inroads of their countrymen, on condition that they ſhould embrace Chriſtianity. They conſented and were baptized. This mode of population fully anſwered Alfred's expectations: for the greater part of the Danes ſettled peaceably in their new poſſeſſions.

This great prince, during the laſt three years of his reign, enjoyed a profound peace, which he employed in eſtabliſhing civil and military inſtitutions, in compoſing the minds of men to induſtry and juſtice, and in providing againſt the return of like calamities. After rebuilding the ruined cities, particularly London, which had been deſtroyed by the Danes in the reign of

* See Introduction.

Ethelwolf, he divided the kingdom into counties, hundreds and tithings, and eſtabliſhed a regular militia for its defence*.

But Alfred did not truſt ſolely to his land forces; for among the other glories of his reign was that of raiſing a maritime power, by which he ſecured his coaſts from future invaſions. He may be conſidered as the creator of the Engliſh navy. Senſible that ſhips are the moſt natural bulwark of an iſland, a circumſtance hitherto entirely overlooked by the Saxons or Engliſh, as they began now to be generally called, he provided himſelf with a naval force, and met the Danes on their own element. A fleet of 120 armed veſſels was ſtationed upon the coaſts, and being provided with warlike engines, and expert ſeamen, maintained a ſuperiority over the enemy, and gave birth to that claim, which England ſtill ſupports, to the ſovereignty of the ocean.

In order to guide the magiſtrates in the adminiſtration of juſtice, he framed a body of laws, which ſtill operate in full force under the name of *Common Law*, and eſtabliſhed a mode of trial by juries, the beſt ſecurity of our liberties both perſonal and political. He was ſo vigilant againſt any violation of this bulwark of our conſtitution, that he *hanged Cadwine*, one of his *judges*, for ſentencing a man to death without the conſent of the twelve jurors. His vigour pervaded every department of the ſtate, and the police was ſo good, that golden bracelets were hung up near the highways, and no one dared to touch them. He died in the year 901, and his character is ſo completely amiable and heroic, that he is juſtly dignified with the epithet of the *Great*. His civil and military qualifications equally claim our admiration. In him the virtues were ſo well tempered, and ſo juſtly blended, that neither exceeded its proper limits. He poſſeſſed the moſt enterpriſing ſpirit with the cooleſt prudence, and the moſt rigid juſtice with the gentleſt mercy. With the higheſt

* See Introduction.

capacity,

capacity, and the moſt ardent inclination for ſcience, he united the moſt ſhining talents for action. He knew how to reconcile the vigour of authority with the arts that conciliate love, and to give the ſovereign command the air of a friendly requeſt.

Alfred was ſucceeded by his ſon Edward the Elder, under whom, though a brave prince, the Danes renewed their invaſions. His ſucceſſor, Athelſtan, in order to encourage commerce, enacted, that every merchant who made three voyages to the Mediterranean, ſhould be put upon a footing with a *thane*, or nobleman of the firſt rank. He cauſed the ſcriptures to be tranſlated into the Saxon tongue. He was ſucceſsful in his wars with the Scots, and died in 941.

The reigns of his ſucceſſors, Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, were weak and inglorious. Edgar, who mounted the throne about the year 959, revived the naval glory of England, and is ſaid to have been rowed down the river Dee by eight kings his vaſſals, whilſt he himſelf ſat at the helm; but, like his predeceſſors, he was the ſlave of prieſts, particularly St. Dunſtan, abbot of Glaſtonbury, who directed both the ſpiritual affairs of the king, and the temporal concerns of the kingdom. Nothing either in church or ſtate was tranſacted, without his advice and concurrence. He was ſole treaſurer, and by his counſel moſt of the benefices in the kingdom were beſtowed upon monks, while the ſecular clergy were totally neglected. This partiality rendered Dunſtan too powerful for a ſubject. His zeal was as furious as his power was great, and his underſtanding as ſhallow as his ambition was boundleſs. The monks, however, whom he had ſo much obliged, took every opportunity of ſounding his praiſe, and repreſenting him as a prophet and apoſtle.

The circumſtances of Edgar's marriage with Elfrida, daughter of Olgar, earl of Devonſhire, were at once ſingular and criminal. The fame of this lady's beauty having reached his ears, he ſent his favourite, Athelwold, to bring him an account if ſhe was really ſo handſome as repreſented, being reſolved, if ſhe was,

to obtain poſſeſſion of her on honourable terms. Athelwold, overcome by thoſe charms, which he found even to ſurpaſs report, upon his return to Edgar, ſacrificing his fidelity to his paſſion, told him, that her fortune and quality alone procured her the admiration of the world, and that her charms, ſo far from being extraordinary, would have been entirely overlooked in a woman of inferior condition. "But," added he, "though ſhe has nothing to claim the attention of a ſovereign, her immenſe wealth would to a ſubject, be a ſufficient compenſation for the homelineſs of her perſon, and though it could never produce on me the illuſion of beauty, it might make her a convenient wife!" Edgar, ready to promote his favourite's intereſt, not only approved of his purpoſe, but forwarded his ſucceſs by his recommendations to the parents of Elfrida, when Athelwold was ſoon made happy in the poſſeſſion of his miſtreſs.

Royal favourites are never without enemies. Edgar was ſoon informed of the truth; but before he would execute vengeance on Athelwold's treachery, he reſolved to ſatisfy himſelf of the extent of his guilt. He accordingly told him, that he intended to pay him a viſit at his caſtle, and be introduced to his new-married wife. Athelwold was thunderſtruck at the propoſal; but, as he could not refuſe the honour, he only begged leave to go before the king a few hours, to prepare for his reception. On his arrival, he informed Elfrida of his deceit and danger, and entreated her to conceal from Edgar, by every means in her power, that fatal beauty, which had ſeduced him from his fidelity to his friend. Elfrida promiſed compliance, though nothing appears to have been further from her thoughts. She took care to appear before the king with all the advantages, which the richeſt attire, and moſt engaging airs could beſtow. This had the deſired effect. She inſtantly excited in the boſom of the amorous Edgar, the higheſt love towards herſelf, and the moſt furious deſire of revenge againſt her huſband. He, however, diſſembled thoſe paſſions, till, having ſeduced Athelwold

wold into a wood, on pretence of hunting, he ſtabbed him with his own hand, and ſoon after eſpouſed Elfrida.

One of the remarkable incidents of this reign, was the extirpation of wolves in England, which the king effected, by changing the tribute money, uſually paid by the Welch princes, into an annual tribute of 300 heads of wolves.

Edgar was ſucceeded, in 975, by his eldeſt ſon Edward, afterwards barbarouſly murdered by his ſtepmother, whoſe ſon Ethelred aſcended the throne in 978. The nation was at that time harraſſed by the Danes. To get rid of them, Ethelred agreed to pay 30,000l. levied by way of tax, and called *Danegeld*, which was the firſt land-tax in England. In the year 1002 they had made ſuch ſettlements in England, that Ethelred conſented to a general maſſacre of them. But this atrocious deſign ſerved only to enrage the Daniſh king Swein, who, in 1013, obliged Ethelred, his queen, and two ſons, to flee into Normandy, a province of France, at that time governed by its own princes, ſtyled the dukes of Normandy.

Swein being killed, was ſucceeded by his ſon Canute the Great. But Ethelred returning to England, forced Canute to retire to Denmark, from whence he invaded England with a great army, and obliged Edmund Ironſide, ſo called from his uncommon bodily ſtrength, to divide with him the kingdom. Upon Edmund's being aſſaſſinated, Canute ſucceeded to the whole, which he enjoyed for ſome years in great tranquillity, and died in the year 1035.

With Canute fell the glory of the Danes in England; and at his death the torch of diſcord, which had lighted up ſo many woes to this country, began to burn with a more baleful luſtre. Canute, though nurſed in blood, trained to injuſtice, and habituated to barbarity, paſſed to the grave with the character of the mildeſt virtues. He acquired the ſurname of Great from his conqueſt; but merited that epithet much better from the virtues he diſplayed, during the pacific period of his adminiſtration

ſtration. He was ever attentive to the intereſt of his people, and diſpleaſed with the adulation of his courtiers.

His ſon Harold Harefoot did nothing memorable, and his ſucceſſor Hardicanute was ſo degenerate a prince, that the Daniſh royalty in England ended with him. The family of Ethelred being now called to the throne, Edward, commonly called the *Confeſſor*, ſucceeded, though Edgar Atheling, a weak youth, deſcended from an elder branch, had the lineal right. Edward was a great benefactor to the church, and exceſſively fond of the Normans, with whom he had reſided. He was governed by his miniſter, earl Godwin, and his ſons, the eldeſt of whom was Harold. It is ſaid that he deviſed the ſucceſſion of his crown to William, duke of Normandy. Be that as it will, it is certain that, upon the death of the confeſſor, Harold, ſon to Godwin, earl of Kent, mounted the throne.

William Duke of Normandy, though illegitimate, poſſeſſed that great duchy, and reſolved to aſſert his right to the crown of England. For that purpoſe, he invited the neighbouring princes, as well as his own vaſſals, to join him, and made liberal promiſes to his followers, of lands and honours in England, to induce them to give him more effectual aſſiſtance. By theſe means he collected 40,000 of the braveſt and moſt regular troops in Europe, and while Harold was embarraſſed with freſh invaſions of the Danes, William landed in England without oppoſition. Harold returning from the North, encountered William in Suſſex, near the place where the town of Haſtings now ſtands, and a moſt bloody battle was fought between the two armies; in which Harold being killed, the crown of England devolved upon William, in the year 1066.

The victor loſt about ſix thouſand men in this long and dreadful conteſt; but the number of Engliſh that fell was much greater. The next morning exhibited a ſcene of blood ſhocking to the eye of every humane beholder. The body of Harold was at laſt found among an indiſcriminate heap of carnage, ſo deformed, that

that it would perhaps never have been known, had not a lady, whom he had kept as a miſtreſs, diſtinguiſhed it by a particular mark.

Thus died Harold in defence of Engliſh liberty, againſt the uſurpation of foreign power.

His death put a period to the Anglo-Saxon government, after it had continued above ſix hundred years, from Hengiſt, the firſt king of Kent.

CHAP. II.

RELIGION OF THE SAXONS BEFORE THEIR CONVERSION TO CHRISTIANITY.

MEN not favoured with revelation, give their own paſſions and prejudices to the divinities whom they adore. Brought up in battle, and habituated to blood, the Saxons made their gods as fierce and untractable as themſelves. The character given of Odin differs in no reſpect from the pictures we have of thoſe bold and intrepid warriors, who led their predatory armies into the regions of the ſouth. The ſupreme gods of other nations are repreſented as favourable to the exiſtence of the human ſpecies. The chief title of Odin was the *Father of the Slain*. The events of this life, excepting the means of leaving it with renown and through violence, commanded little of the attention of his worſhippers. His dominion therefore, in ſome meaſure, may be ſaid to begin in the hour of death.

The mode of worſhip, among the Saxons, and their Scandinavian anceſtors, was as ſimple as their ideas of a divinity were unrefined. A great log of unfaſhioned wood, perpendicularly raiſed in the open air, was the common repreſentative of Odin. This ſymbol they diſtinguiſhed by the name of *Irmunſel*, a word which, in their language, ſignified the univerſal pillar which ſuſtains the world.

Thor,

Thor, from which Thurſday, the fifth day of the week, is derived, was only the title of Thunderer, annexed by all nations to the Supreme Divinity. Odin was worſhipped under that name as preſiding over the regions of the air, as the ruler of tempeſts, the director of thunder, the lord of the weather, and protector and nouriſher of the fruits of the earth.

Contrary to the practice of the Celtic nations, the Saxons, Danes, and other northern tribes, admitted a female divinity into the catalogue of their gods. As Odin was believed to be the father, *Frea* was eſteemed the mother of all the deities. Odin was the irreſiſtible principle which gives motion to every thing that breathes; and Frea furniſhed that portion of matter which is animated into living creatures by the active and pervading ſpirit, diſtinguiſhed by the name of God.

In the moſt ancient times, Frea was the ſame with the goddeſs Hertha, or the Earth. Her worſhip filled the minds of her devotees with ſentiments very different from thoſe which the bloody altars of Odin inſpired. During the feaſt held in honour of Hertha among the Angli, and their neighbours on the Baltic, an univerſal joy was ſpread over the country. Benevolence and hoſpitality prevailed in every quarter. War and diſcord ceaſed; and it was then only that peace and quiet were either known or loved. The univerſal parent of mankind did not, they juſtly thought, delight in the deſtruction of her race; and therefore every inſtrument of death was ſhut up during her ſuppoſed reſidence in the land. When ſhe retired to her ſacred groves, her warlike worſhippers, whoſe bent to humanity was only temporary, recoiled with violence into their favourite occupation of ſlaughter and war.

To Frea the ſixth day of the week was conſecrated, which ſtill bears her name.

With regard to a future ſtate, though prejudice and education have ſometimes eradicated the fear of death from whole nations, the love of exiſtence ſeems to be immoveably planted in the human breaſt. Pleaſed with

with themſelves, and even fond of a life which they call miſerable, men look forward to diſſolution with a melancholy awe, and are willing to place an eternity of being beyond the grave. The Saxon and Daniſh prieſts believed and taught the immortality of the human ſoul, and a ſtate of rewards and puniſhments after death. The place of rewards they called *Valhalla*, where the heroes ſpent the day in martial ſports, and the night in feaſting on the fleſh of the boar, and drinking large draughts of beer or mead out of the ſkulls of their enemies whom they had ſlain in battle, preſented to them by beautiful young virgins, who waited upon them at table. The place of puniſhment they called *Niſleheim*, or *The Abode of Evil*, where Hiela dwelt, whoſe palace was *Anguiſh*, her table *Famine*, and her bed *Leanneſs*. In the former of thoſe places, all brave and good men, and in the latter, all cowards and bad men were to reſide to the end of this world, when the heavens and the earth, and even the gods themſelves were to be conſumed by fire. After this general conflagration, a new and more glorious world was to ariſe out of the aſhes of the former; the heroes, with all good and juſt men, were to be admitted into a palace built of ſhining gold; and cowards, aſſaſſins, falſe ſwearers, and adulterers, were to be confined in a place built of the carcaſes of ſerpents.

The deſcription given of the dominions and perſon of Hela are full of fancy. "On the ſhores of the dead bodies, remote from the ſun," ſays the Edda, "there is a ſpacious and diſmal hall, with its gates wide open to the northern winds. The walls are wattled with ſnakes, whoſe heads look inward and vomit poiſon. Rivers of this poiſon ruſh through the hall, which the unhappy are forced to ford. But in the worſt condition are thoſe, who are precipitated into the inmoſt regions. They are tormented by the evil Demon, who dwells in the fartheſt darkneſs*." Hela

* Edda Mythol.

who

who preſides over theſe baleful regions, is herſelf a figure expreſſive of ſuitable horrors. One half of her frame is blue, the other bears the colour of the human ſkin. Her aſpect is fierce and terrible; her temper unrelenting and cruel.

The terror which Hela and her dominions impreſſed on the minds of the Anglo-Saxons and their anceſtors in Scandinavia, was perhaps as great an inducement to valour, as were the joys of Valhalla*. Men however choſe, for the ſake of their reputation, to derive their contempt of life from the latter. To die with exultation and joy, under the torture or arms of an enemy, was as peculiar to the northern nations, as it was neceſſary to their renown. "The goddeſſes invite me," ſays Lodbrog, "the Valkyrian goddeſſes, whom Odin has ſent from his hall. The hours of my life are paſſing away; with a ſmile I give up my ſoul†."

The minds of the Saxons were much engaged in the prediction of future events, and their *divination* was very ſimple. It conſiſted of ſlips of wood cut from a fruit-bearing tree, and diſtinguiſhed by different marks or notches. Theſe were jumbled together in a white cloth. Then a prieſt, if it was a public ceremony, or, if a private augury, the father of a family, implored the aſſiſtance of the gods, and lifting up his eyes towards heaven, took up a ſlip three times ſucceſſively, and prognoſticated either good or evil, according to the number of marks on the piece he happened to take in his hand. They likewiſe prognoſticated future events, by the ſinging and flight of birds, and from the neighing of horſes, eſpecially thoſe of a *white colour*, which they conſidered as the miniſters of the gods, and fed in woods and groves at the public expence. But their ſureſt preſages, with regard to the events of war, were drawn from the iſſue of a ſingle combat, fought between one of their own champions, and a *captive* of the people againſt whom they had commenced hoſtilities.

* Heaven. † Vitæ clapſæ ſunt horæ, ridens moriar.

Though

Though in very ancient times the Saxons had no covered temples, they at laſt erected ſome of incredible grandeur and magnificence. The ſacred fire was never extinguiſhed, and near it ſtood a vaſe for receiving the blood of the victims, and a bruſh for ſprinkling it upon the audience. Certain great feſtivals were kept with peculiar ſolemnity. One of the greateſt of theſe was celebrated at the winter ſolſtice. This feaſt was called *Yule*, a name by which our feſtival of Chriſtmas is ſtill known in many parts of Scotland, and in ſome parts of England.

An opinion that matter could be annihilated, was never admitted into the mythology of the heathen Saxons. To be reduced to its firſt principles, was what they called the *diſſolution of the univerſe*. It is thus deſcribed in their prophetic writings. "The ſun ſhall grow dark above; the earth ſhall ſink under the ocean. The bright ſtars ſhall fall from heaven. Fire ſhall rage through the ancient fabric of the world; and the flames aſcending, ſhall touch the very ſkies*." The ſilence and darkneſs, which were to ſucceed the diſſolution of the world, were not to be of long continuance. The old earth reduced into aſhes, had ſunk under the ocean. A new earth, green, beautiful and pleaſant, over all its regions, will afterwards riſe gradually from the ſea. The fields, without being ſown with ſeed, will of their own accord, produce every ſort of grain. A new ſun will riſe over the world, the daughter † of the former ſun, who will be no leſs beautiful than her parent, and will follow the path of her mother through the ſky. The ſouls of men will eſcape the ruin which ſhall overwhelm the univerſe. They will convene on the plains of Ida, where the virtuous will be indulged with every happineſs and joy deſcribed, with romantic enthuſiaſm, in the Icelandic Edda. "In the ſouthern quarter of heaven ſtands a hall ſupreme in beauty. It is brighter than the ſun; it is roofed with gold; it ſtands after the deſtruction of

* Voluſpa. † Sunna, the ſun, is, in the Edda, of the feminine gender.

heaven,

Britons had conducted all eccleſiaſtical matters by their own ſynods and councils, acknowledging no ſubordination to the Roman pontiff. But the Saxons, having received their religion through the medium of Italian monks, were taught to conſider Rome as the capital of their faith. Pilgrimages to that city were accordingly repreſented as the moſt meritorious acts of devotion; and not only noblemen and ladies of rank undertook this tedious journey, but kings themſelves, reſigning their crowns, implored a ſafe paſſport to heaven at the foot of St. Peter's chair, and exchanged the purple for the ſackcloth.

During the eleventh century, the pope and Roman clergy carried on a lucrative traffic in relics, of which they never wanted inexhauſtible ſtores. Kings, princes, and wealthy prelates, purchaſed pieces of the croſs, or whole legs and arms of the apoſtles, while others were obliged to be contented with the toes and fingers of inferior ſaints. An Engliſh archbiſhop, who was at Rome in 1021, purchaſed from the pope an arm of a ſaint for one hundred talents of ſilver*, and one talent of gold†. This may enable us to form ſome idea of the knavery of the ſellers, and the aſtoniſhing ſuperſtition of the purchaſers, of thoſe commodities. The building, endowing, and adorning of monaſteries, was carried on with ſuch mad profuſion for more than a century, that a great part of the wealth of England was expended on theſe ſtructures, or lay buried in their ornaments and utenſils. "The maſſes of gold and ſilver," ſays a reſpectable hiſtorian, "which queen Emma, with a holy prodigality, beſtowed upon the monaſteries of Wincheſter, aſtoniſhed the minds of ſtrangers, while the ſplendor of the precious ſtones dazzled their eyes." Let us be thankful to divine providence that we live in a more enlightened age, and let our improvement in knowledge and virtue bear ſome proportion to the advantages with which we are favoured.

* Six thouſand pound weight. † Sixty pound weight.

CHAP.

CHAP. IV.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS OF THE ANGLO-SAXONS.

THE Saxon Annals are too imperfect to enable us to delineate exactly the prerogatives of the crown, and the privileges of the people after their settlement in Britain. The government might be somewhat different in the different kingdoms of the Heptarchy, and might also undergo several changes before the Norman conquest; but of those changes we are in a great measure ignorant. We only know, that at all times, and in all the kingdoms, there was a national council, a *Wittenagemot*, or assembly of wise men, whose consent was necessary to the enacting of laws, and to give sanction to the measures of public administration. The constituent members of this assembly were the nobility, the dignified clergy, and all freeholders possessing a certain portion of land.

The Anglo-Saxons were divided into three orders of men, the noble, the free, and the servile. The nobles, who were called thanes, were a very numerous body of men, comprehending all the considerable landholders in England. They were the genuine descendants and representatives of the ancient German companions of their princes. In times of war they constituted the flower of the armies, and in times of peace they swelled the trains of their kings, and added greatly to the splendor of their courts. From this body all the chief officers, both civil and military, were taken; and to obtain offices under government was the great object of their ambition. Before they obtained an office, their lands were their only support, and they lived in greater or less affluence, according to the extent of their estates.

The freemen were denominated ceorls, and were chiefly employed in husbandry. Whence a husband-

man and ceorl came to be ſynonymous terms. If any of them proſpered ſo well as to acquire the property of five hydes of land, upon which he had a church, a kitchen, a bell houſe, and a great gate, and obtained a ſeal and office in the king's court, he was eſteemed a nobleman or thane. If a ceorl applied to learning, and attained to prieſt's orders, he was alſo conſidered as a thane. Succeſs in trade or in war, raiſed him to the ſame rank. Thus the temple of honour ſtood open to theſe ceorls, whether they applied themſelves to agriculture, commerce, letters, or arms, which were then the only profeſſions eſteemed worthy of a freeman.

Slavery continued in England as long as the Saxons were heathens, and for ſome time after their converſion to Chriſtianity. Slaves were by far the moſt numerous claſs in the community, and, being the property of their maſters, were conſequently incapable of holding any property themſelves. They were of two kinds, namely, houſehold ſlaves, after the manner of the ancients, and ruſtic ſlaves, who were ſold and transferred, like cattle, with the ſoil. Theſe laſt were called *villani*, or *villains*, becauſe they dwelt at the villages belonging to their maſters, and performed the ſervile labours of cultivating their lands. The biſhops had authority to regulate the quantity of work to be done by ſlaves, and to take care that no man uſed his ſlave harſhly, but as a fellow-chriſtian. The clergy alſo procured a law to be made, that all the Engliſh ſlaves of every biſhop ſhould be ſet at liberty at his death. But notwithſtanding this, the greateſt part of the common people groaned under the yoke of ſervitude, during the period of the Saxon government in this country.

The higher nobility and dignified clergy among the Anglo-Saxons poſſeſſed a criminal juriſdiction within their own territories, and could puniſh without appeal ſuch as they judged worthy of death. This was a dangerous privilege, and liable to the greateſt abuſe. But although the Anglo-Saxon government ſeems at laſt to have become in ſome meaſure ariſtocratical, there

there were ſtill conſiderable remains of the ancient democracy. All the freeholders aſſembled twice a year in the county-courts, to receive appeals from the inferior courts; a practice well calculated for the preſervation of general liberty, and for reſtraining the exorbitant power of the nobles.

The criminal laws of the Anglo-Saxons, as of moſt barbarous nations, were uncommonly mild. A compenſation in money was ſufficient for murder of any ſpecies, and for the life of perſons of any rank, not excepting the king, and the archbiſhop, whoſe head, by the laws of Kent, was eſtimated higher than the king's.

The fine for all kinds of wounds was alſo ſettled. The price of a limb was not the ſame in all parts of England. The value of it in one county might be three pounds, in another only forty ſhillings.

But if the puniſhments for crimes among the Anglo-Saxons were ſingular, their proofs were no leſs ſo. When any controverſy about a fact was too intricate for the ignorant judges to unravel, they had recourſe to what they called the judgment of God; or, in other words, to chance. Their modes of conſulting that blind divinity were various, but the moſt common was the ordeal. This method of trial was practiſed either by boiling water or red-hot iron. The water or iron was conſecrated by many prayers, maſſes, faſtings, and exorciſms; after which the perſon accuſed either took up, with his naked hand, a ſtone ſunk in the water to a certain depth, or carried the iron to a certain diſtance. The hand was immediately wrapped up, and the covering ſealed for three days, and if on examining it there appeared no marks of burning or ſcalding, the perſon accuſed was pronounced innocent; if otherwiſe, he was declared guilty.

Another way of performing the ordeal of hot iron was, by making the perſon who was to be tried, to walk blindfold, with his feet bare, over nine hot plough-ſhares, placed at certain diſtances. If he did this without being burnt, he was acquitted.

 Theſe

Theſe fiery ordeals, however, were nothing but groſs impoſitions on the credulity of mankind. The accuſed perſon was committed wholly to the prieſt, who was to perform the ceremony, three days before the trial, during which he had time enough to ſtipulate with him for his deliverance, and to give him inſtructions how to act his part. No perſon was permitted to enter the church, but the prieſt and the accuſed, till the iron was heated, when twelve friends of the accuſer, and twelve of the accuſed, were admitted, and ranged along the wall on each ſide of the church, at a reſpectful diſtance. After the iron was taken out of the fire, ſeveral prayers were ſaid, and the accuſed drank a cup of holy water, and ſprinkled himſelf with it; which might take a conſiderable time, if the prieſt was indulgent. The clergy, likewiſe, were in poſſeſſion of ſome ſecret, which they made uſe of when they ſaw reaſon, to prevent any diſagreeable effects. No champion of the church ever ſuſtained the leaſt injury from the touch of hot iron in this ordeal; but when any one was ſo fool hardy as to appeal to it, or to that of hot water, with a view to deprive the church of any of her poſſeſſions, he never failed to burn his fingers, or feet, and to loſe his cauſe.

The chief magiſtrate in all the ſtates eſtabliſhed by the Anglo-Saxons in this iſland, was called the *cyning* or *king;* a title of the moſt honourable import in their language, as including the ideas of wiſdom, power, and valour, the moſt neceſſary qualifications of a ſovereign, both in peace and war. Though hereditary ſucceſſion generally took place, yet the next heir was paſſed by, to make way for a more diſtant relation of the royal line, who was judged more capable of reigning. The Anglo-Saxon monarchs were not abſolute. The laws and cuſtoms of their country limited their power and prerogatives. To adminiſter juſtice, and command the army in time of war, were the two chief duties of the regal office; and he who could not diſcharge both theſe, was conſidered by our anceſtors as unqualified to reign.

The

The higheſt officer in the courts of the Anglo-Saxon kings, was the mayor of the palace, always a prince of the royal family. The prieſt of the houſehold was the next in dignity, who ſat at the royal table, to bleſs the meat, and to chant the Lord's prayer. The third in rank was the ſteward, who had a variety of perquiſites, of which the following were the moſt remarkable. "As much of every caſk of plain ale ſhall belong to the ſteward of the houſehold, as he can reach with his middle finger dipped into it, and as much of every caſk of ale with ſpiceries as he can reach with the ſecond joint of his middle finger, and as much of every caſk of mead as he can reach with the firſt joint of the ſame finger." There was alſo a judge of the houſehold, who ſettled all diſputes that aroſe among the ſervants of the royal family. A learned education, and a *long beard*, were indiſpenſible qualifications of this great officer. The ſilentiary was an officer, whoſe duty it was to command ſilence in the hall, when the king ſat down to table. He then took his ſtand near one of the pillars, and when any improper noiſe aroſe, he immediately quaſhed it by ſtriking the pillar with his rod. This uſeful officer was not peculiar to royal courts, and does not ſeem to be quite unneceſſary in ſome great aſſemblies, even in modern times. But the moſt remarkable officer of all was the king's feet-bearer. This was a young gentleman, whoſe duty it was to ſit on the floor, with his back towards the fire, and hold the king's feet in his boſom while he ſat at table, to keep them warm and comfortable; a piece of ſtate and luxury unknown in modern times.

CHAP. V.

STATE OF LEARNING AMONG THE ANGLO-SAXONS.

UPON the demolition of the weſtern empire in the ſixth century of the chriſtian era, its rude and untutored conquerors, hurrying over the moſt fertile parts of Europe, ignorant of letters, and altogether addicted to the love and exerciſe of arms, quite neglected Roman literature and elegance. The Arabians too, in the courſe of a few years after this event, headed by the deceitful and enthuſiaſtic Mahomet, ruſhed from their ſavage deſerts to enforce the precepts of his religion, and, under his immediate ſucceſſors, raſhly dared to conſume the valuable library of Alexandria, the rich depoſit of whatever the beſt and wiſeſt of the ancient world had been amaſſing for ages.

Among the chriſtian clergy, where literature ought to have been cheriſhed, the moſt exceſſive ignorance was to be found, and it is not uncommon to diſcover in the deeds of a ſynod, a ſentence like the following: "As my lord biſhop cannot write himſelf, at his requeſt I have ſubſcribed." Even Charlemagne, that far-famed monarch, the theme of minſtrels, and the hero of romance, was unable to write his own name, and forty-five years of his life had elapſed before he attempted any progreſs in literature.

When the Romans invaded Britain, they inſtructed and improved thoſe whom they had ſubdued. The Saxons, being a fierce illiterate people, acted a very different part, and their deſtructive progreſs was marked with darkneſs and deſolation. All the libraries left by the Romans, in this iſland, were deſtroyed by the ravages of war. In the year 690, king Alfred gave an eſtate of eight hides of land, for a ſingle volume on coſmography. "At my acceſſion to the throne," ſays this incomparable man, "all knowledge and learning

ing were extinguiſhed in the Engliſh nation; inſomuch that there were very few to the ſouth of the Humber who underſtood the common prayers of the church, or were capable of tranſlating a ſingle ſentence of Latin into Engliſh; but to the ſouth of the Thames, I cannot recollect ſo much as one who could do this."

In thoſe dark ages, however, there were ſome men, who prevented the total extinction of literature in this iſland. *Gildas* the hiſtorian was one of theſe, and is the only Britiſh author of the ſixth century whoſe works are publiſhed. He was ſo much admired by his countrymen that he obtained the appellation of *Gildas the Wiſe*, though his works do not ſeem to entitle him to that diſtinction. His hiſtory of Britain is only valuable for its antiquity, and from our total want of better information. *Columbanus*, a native of Scotland, was a learned monk and writer, contemporary with Gildas. He was educated in the famous monaſtery of Jona, and afterwards founded the abbey of Luxeville in France, which he governed about 20 years with great reputation. He compoſed a ſyſtem of laws, which were ſo ſevere, that if any of the monks ſmiled in the time of divine ſervice, he was to receive fifty laſhes with a whip.

Aldhelm, a near relation of Ina, king of the Weſt-Saxons, and biſhop of Shireburn, in the ſeventh century, was a man of very conſiderable literature, for the time in which he lived. Having acquired what learned knowledge Britain could afford, he travelled into foreign parts for improvement. He was the firſt Engliſhman who wrote Latin in proſe and verſe. His ſtyle is elegant, and his compoſitions ſhew him to have been well acquainted with philoſophical and religious ſubjects. Alfred the great declared that Aldhelm was the beſt of all the Saxon poets, and that a favourite ſong, which was univerſally ſung in his time, near two centuries after its author's death, was of his compoſition. When he was abbot of Malmeſbury, having a fine voice, and great ſkill in muſic as well as poetry, and

obſerving the backwardneſs of his barbarous countrymen to liſten to grave inſtructions, he compoſed a number of little poems which he ſung to them after maſs, in ſo ſweet a manner, that they were gradually inſtructed and civilized. So true it is, that

" Muſic has charms to ſoothe the ſavage breaſt,
" To ſoften rocks and bend the knotted oak."

This learned prelate died in 709.

Beda, or *Bede*, ſurnamed the venerable, though he never attained to any higher ſtation in the church than that of a ſimple monk, was the great luminary of England, and of the Chriſtian world, in the eighteenth century. He was born at Weremouth in Northumberland, in 672, and died in 735. He ſpent his life in the monaſtery of Jarrow, near the mouth of the Tyne. But though his life was humble and obſcure, his fame ſpread over all Europe, and the pope courted his company, and his advice in the government of the church. He left many writings behind him, on a great variety of ſubjects. His eccleſiaſtical hiſtory of England commences at the invaſion of Julius Cæſar, and ends in 728. " The death of Bede," ſays William of Malmeſbury, " was fatal to learning, and particularly to hiſtory; inſomuch that it may be ſaid that almoſt all knowledge of paſt events was buried in the ſame grave with him, and hath continued in that condition even to our times."

Alcuin, abbot of Canterbury, who lived about 70 years after Bede, was an eminent philoſopher, orator, and divine. Being ſent on an embaſſy by Offa, king of Mercia, to the emperor Charlemagne, he contracted ſo great an eſteem and friendſhip for him, that he prevailed upon him to ſettle at his court, and to become his preceptor in the ſciences. Some of his letters to that great prince breathe an excellent ſpirit. " By wiſdom," ſays he, " *kings reign and princes decree juſtice*. Ceaſe not then, O moſt gracious king, to preſs the young nobility of your court to the eager purſuit of wiſdom and learning in their youth, that they may attain to an honourable old age, and bleſſed immortality.

immortality. For my own part, I ſow the ſeeds of learning in the minds of your ſubjects in theſe parts, mindful of the ſaying of the wiſeſt man: *In the morning ſow thy ſeed, and in the evening withhold not thine hand; for thou knoweſt not whether ſhall proſper, either this or that.* To do this hath been the moſt delightful employment of my whole life. In my youthful years, I ſowed the ſeeds of knowledge in the flouriſhing ſeminaries of my native ſoil, and in my old age I am doing the ſame in France, praying to God, that they may ſpring up and flouriſh in both countries." A French writer ſays, that to Alcuin, France was indebted for all the polite learning of which it boaſted, during ſeveral ages. This learned Engliſhman, compoſed many treatiſes on various ſubjects, in an elegant and pure ſtyle. He retired from Charlemagne's court, to St. Martin's abbey, at Tours, in Flanders, where he died, in the year 894.

The moſt learned man in Europe, about the middle of the ninth century, was a native of the town of Air, in North Britain. *Johannes Scotus Erigena*, ſeeing his own country involved in darkneſs and confuſion, travelled into Greece, where he acquired the knowledge of the Greek language and philoſophy, which were very rare accompliſhments in thoſe times. The great work of John Scot is his book "concerning the nature of things," the moſt curious literary production of that age, being written with a metaphyſical ſubtlety and acuteneſs then unknown in Europe.

The reign of Alfred is a moſt memorable period in the annals of literature, with the love of which the following circumſtance firſt inſpired him. He was not taught to know one letter from another till he was twelve years of age, when a book was put into his hand by accident rather than deſign. The queen, his mother, being one day in company with her five ſons, of whom Alfred was the youngeſt, and having a book of Saxon poems in her hand, beautifully written and adorned, obſerved, that the royal youths were charmed with the beauty of the book. Upon which ſhe ſaid,

" I will make a preſent of this book to him who ſhall learn to read it ſooneſt." Alfred immediately applied to learn with ſuch ardour, that in a ſhort time he both read and repeated the poems to the queen, and received the book for his reward. From that moment he was ſeized with an inſatiable thirſt for knowledge, and reading and ſtudy became his chief delight.

Alfred the great was not only an univerſal ſcholar, but a great encourager of learned men; and, what is much to his praiſe, he employed his taſte for knowledge, to promote the happineſs of his ſubjects. He founded ſchools on a very extenſive plan; and though Oxford had been a ſeat of learning in more ancient times, yet that univerſity appears to have been ſo entirely ruined in the beginning of his reign, that he may juſtly be ſtyled the father and founder of it; a circumſtance equally honourable to his memory, and to one of the moſt famous univerſities in the world. Learning revived under Alfred's auſpicious reign, which clearly evinces that a prince, animated with a deſire to diffuſe knowledge and happineſs among his ſubjects, can produce an alteration for the better in the ſpirit of a nation.

After the death of this incomparable man, the torch of ſcience, which he had taken ſo much pains to relume, was totally extinguiſhed, and the demon of ignorance and ſuperſtition ſpread her dreadful pall over the barbarous ſons of proſtrate Europe. He and a few others, whom hiſtory has delighted to hold up to our admiration, and whom it has embalmed with grateful praiſe, were but as meteors that flaſh on the ſurrounding gloom, are gazed at for a moment with ſtupid wonder, and are then loſt in the darkneſs of returning night. " The ſucceeding age," ſays a learned writer, " for its barbariſm and wickedneſs, may be called the age of iron; for its dulneſs and ſtupidity the age of lead; and for its blindneſs and ignorance, the age of darkneſs."

CHAP.

CHAP. VI.

OF THE ARTS AMONG THE ANGLO-SAXONS.

FEW improvements in the arts were made by the Saxons in England, after the firſt invaſion of the Danes. Theſe barbarians ſeem to have carried off with them, almoſt, all the bullion and ready money of the Anglo-Saxons; for Alfred the great left no more to his two daughters for their portions than 100l. each. Harold, however, many years after, in his laſt victory over them, recovered as much treaſure as twelve ſtout men could carry.

The Anglo-Saxon huſbandmen had but a very imperfect knowledge of agriculture. They ploughed, ſowed, and harrowed their lands; but as all theſe operations were performed by wretched ſlaves, who had little or no intereſt in their ſucceſs, we may be ſure that they were executed in a ſuperficial manner. Their ploughs were very ſlight, and had but one handle. They were unacquainted with water-mills for ſome time after their ſettlement in this country, and had no better way of converting their corn into meal, than by grinding it with hand-mills turned by women. The lands belonging to the monaſteries were beſt cultivated, becauſe the ſecular canons who poſſeſſed them, ſpent ſome part of their time in that ſalutary and laudable employment.

"In ancient times," ſays the author of the black book in the exchequer, "our kings received neither gold nor ſilver from their tenants, but only proviſions for the daily uſe of their houſehold. This cuſtom continued even after the conqueſt, during the whole reign of William I. and I myſelf have converſed with ſeveral old people who had ſeen the royal tenants paying their rents in ſeveral kinds of proviſions at the king's court." By the laws of Ina, king of the Weſt-Saxons, the following rent was to be paid for a farm

nſiſting of ten hides of land; namely, ten caſks of ney, three hundred loaves of bread, twelve caſks of ong ale, thirty caſks of ſmall ale, two oxen, ten ethers, ten geeſe, twenty hens, ten cheeſes, one caſk butter, five ſalmon, and one hundred eels. In ſome aces, theſe rents were paid in wheat, rye, oats, malt, ur, hogs, and ſheep, according to the nature of the m, or the cuſtom of the country. But though this as the uſual mode of payment, money-rents for lands ere not altogether unknown in England, in the period ider review.

When the arts and practices of the huſbandman were imperfect, it cannot be ſuppoſed that thoſe of the rdener had made greater progreſs. There is, however, ſufficient evidence, that gardens were cultivated, d fruit trees planted and ingrafted, in this period, rticularly by the monks. Brithnod, the firſt abbot Ely, is celebrated for his ſkill in gardening, and for excellent gardens and orchards which he made near it monaſtery.

The uſeful art of architecture ſuffered no leſs than riculture, by the departure of the Romans. That genious and active people, with the aſſiſtance of their itiſh ſubjects, who were inſtructed by them, had orned their dominions in this iſland, with a great mber of elegant and magnificent ſtructures, both for blic and private uſe. Some of theſe ſtructures were ilt with ſo much ſolidity, that they would have reed all the attacks of time, and remained to this day, they had not been wilfully deſtroyed. This was ne by the Anglo-Saxons in the courſe of their long urs againſt the unhappy Britons; for it ſeems to have en a maxim with theſe ferocious conquerors, to deoy all the towns and caſtles which they took from eir enemies, inſtead of preſerving them for their own e. Like all the other nations of Germany, they had en accuſtomed to live in wretched hovels, built of od or earth, and covered with ſtraw, or the branches trees; nor did they much improve in the knowledge architecture for 200 years after their arrival. During

that period maſonry was quite unknown in this iſland, and the walls even of cathedral churches were built of wood.

Maſonry was reſtored, and ſome other arts connected with it introduced into England, towards the end of the ſeventh century, by two clergymen, who were great travellers, and had often viſited Rome, where they had acquired ſome taſte for theſe arts. Theſe were the famous Wilfrid, biſhop of York, and Benedict Biſcop, founder of the abbey of Weremouth. "In the year 674," ſays Bede, "Benedict croſſed the ſea, and brought with him a number of maſons, in order to build the church of his monaſtery of ſtone, after the Roman manner, of which he was a great admirer. When the work was far advanced, he ſent agents into France to procure glaſs-makers to glaze the windows of his church and monaſtery, who not only performed the work required by Benedict, but inſtructed the Engliſh in the art of making glaſs for windows, lamps, drinking-veſſels, and other uſes." The ancient Britons, indeed, were acquainted with this art, but the Saxons had ſeldom or never practiſed it, till this period.

The arts of building edifices of ſtone, with windows of glaſs, and other ornaments, do not ſeem to have flouriſhed much for ſeveral centuries after their introduction: ſo that when any ſuch buildings were erected, they were the objects of much admiration. When Alfred the great formed the deſign of rebuilding his ruined cities, churches and monaſteries, and of adorning his dominions with magnificent ſtructures, he was obliged to bring many of his artificers from foreign countries. Nor is it the leaſt praiſe of this illuſtrious prince, that he was the greateſt builder and the beſt architect of the age in which he lived. There is ſufficient evidence, however, that long after his time, almoſt all the houſes in England, and the greateſt part of the monaſteries and churches, were very mean buildings, conſtructed of wood, and covered with thatch. The Anglo-Saxon nobility had no taſte for

magnificent buildings, but ſpent their great revenues in mean, low, and inconvenient houſes. This ſeems to have been owing in great meaſure to the unſettled ſtate of their country, and the frequent depredations of the Danes, who made it a conſtant rule to burn all the houſes, monaſteries, and churches, wherever they came. From the few remains of Anglo-Saxon architecture in England, it appears to have been a rude imitation of the ancient Roman manner, and very different from that which is commonly called Gothic, of which ſo many noble ſpecimens adorn our country. The moſt admired of the Saxon churches ſeem to have been low and gloomy, their pillars plain and clumſy, their walls immoderately thick, their windows few and ſmall, with ſemicircular arches at the top.

At this period likewiſe, our anceſtors were acquainted with the arts of working in gold, ſilver, iron, lead, and jewels. The famous St. Dunſtan, archbiſhop of Canterbury, who governed both church and ſtate with the moſt abſolute ſway, was the beſt blackſmith, brazier, goldſmith, and engraver of his time. Many trinkets made by this celebrated mechanic were long preſerved in the church, as the moſt precious relics, and objects of the higheſt veneration.

From the following lines it appears that he was the inventor of the Æolian harp:

" St. Dunſtan's harp on the church wall,
Upon a pin did hang:
The harp itſelf, with ſtrings and all,
Untouch'd by hand did twang*."

Among the various artiſts collected by Alfred the Great, there were not a few who wrought in gold and ſilver, and with the inſtructions of their royal maſter, performed ſeveral works in theſe precious metals, of incomparable beauty. The truth of this aſſertion is abundantly confirmed by that moſt beautiful jewel of exquiſite workmanſhip, found at Ethelingley, in Somerſetſhire, where this great prince concealed himſelf

* Pennant.

in

in his diſtreſs, and where he ſometimes reſided in his proſperity. "Alfred ordered me to be made," was the inſcription upon this jewel, which was certainly worn by that prince.

Artificers who wrought in iron were highly regarded in thoſe warlike times, becauſe they fabricated ſwords, and other offenſive arms, as well as defenſive armour. Every military officer had his ſmith, who conſtantly attended his perſon, to keep his arms and armour in order. The chief ſmith was an officer of conſiderable dignity, in the courts of the Anglo-Saxon and Welſh kings, where he enjoyed many privileges. He ſat next the domeſtic chaplain, and was entitled to a draught of every kind of liquor brought into the hall.

The number of battles fought in England, during this period, is almoſt incredible. We may, therefore, reaſonably ſuppoſe, that the pernicious art of ſhedding human blood was brought to greater perfection than uſeful and beneficent arts. The Anglo-Saxon armies were generally attended in their march by waggons loaded with arms and proviſions, and ſometimes with their wives and children. They ſurrounded their camp in the night with theſe waggons, which ſerved as a fortification. The art of war, however, was not reduced to a ſcience, as it is in our times.

Nations who worſhip images naturally encourage thoſe, who have any taſte or genius for the art of making them. If the ſculptor's art doth not owe its origin, it certainly owes its greateſt improvements, to idolatry. The Anglo-Saxons, at the time of their ſettlement in this iſland, had the art of carving in wood, or cutting in ſtone, the images of Woden, Thor, Frea, and other imaginary deities. When Coifi, the chief prieſt of the Northumbrian Saxons, was converted to Chriſtianity, he overturned the altars, and broke down the ſtatues of their gods, in the great temple at Godmundham, near York. The ſhapes of the ſtatues of theſe deities, with their various emblems, are ſtill preſerved in ſeveral authors.

The painters, as well as ſculptors, of the ages we are

are now considering, were chiefly employed in working for the church, by drawing pictures of our Saviour, the Virgin Mary, the apostles, and other saints. The first pictures used in this island, for the ornament of the Anglo-Saxon churches, were brought from Rome. But as the expence of bringing them all from foreign countries was sensibly felt, such of the English, particularly of the clergy, as had a taste for painting, applied to that art, in order to furnish their own churches with these admired ornaments. The famous St. Dunstan was esteemed an excellent painter by his contemporaries. A picture of Christ drawn by this sainted artist, with his own picture prostrate at his feet, and several inscriptions in his own hand-writing, are still preserved in the Bodleian library. The Anglo-Saxons were well skilled in the art of painting on glass, some monuments of which still remain.

Of all the pleasing arts, poetry was the most admired and cultivated during the present period. The greatest princes were no less ambitious of the laurel, than of the royal crown. Alfred was the prince of poets, as well as the best of kings, and employed his poetic talents to enlighten the minds and civilize the manners of his subjects. The poets of the north were particularly famous, and much caressed by our Anglo-Saxon kings. "I know a song," says one of them, "by which I soften and enchant the arms of my enemies, and render their weapons of none effect. I know a song which I need only to sing, when men have loaded me with bonds, for the moment I sing it, my chains fall in pieces, and I walk forth at liberty. I know a song useful to all mankind; for as soon as hatred inflames the sons of men, the moment I sing it they are appeased. I know a song of such virtue, that were I caught in a storm, I can hush the winds, and render the air perfectly calm." Such is the power of poetry accompanied with music.

Those ancient bards, who had acquired so great an ascendancy over the minds of their ferocious countrymen, must certainly have been possessed of an uncommon

mon portion of that poetic fire, which is the gift of nature, and cannot be acquired by art. This is directly aſſerted by one who was well acquainted with their works. " In other languages, any perſon of common underſtanding may make verſes of ſome kind; and, by conſtant practice, may even become expert at making them; but in our Dano-Saxon language, no man can become a poet of the loweſt order, by any effort, unleſs he be inſpired with ſome degree of the true poetic flame. This ſacred fire, like all the other gifts of nature, is beſtowed in very unequal meaſures. There are ſome who can compoſe excellent verſes by help of thought and ſtudy; while others, bleſſed with a greater portion of the true poetic ſpirit, pour forth a torrent of verſes of all kinds with perfect eaſe, without premeditation. This happy genius for poetry diſcovers itſelf even in infancy, by ſuch manifeſt indications, that it cannot be miſtaken, and is obſerved to be moſt ardent about the change of the moon. When a poet of this high order and fervid ſpirit is ſpeaking of his art, or pouring out his verſes, he hath the appearance of one that is mad or drunk. Nay, the very external marks of this poetic fury are in ſome ſo ſtrong and obvious, that a ſtranger will diſcover them at firſt ſight to be great poets, by certain ſingular looks and geſtures, which are called *the poetical vertigo**."

In thoſe days, every one who courted eſteem, made it his ſtudy to be acquainted with vocal and inſtrumental muſic. To be ignorant of this art, was accounted diſgraceful. Beſides the harp, they had other muſical inſtruments, particularly the ſmall pipe, the bag-pipe, the flute, and tabor.

* Olaus Magnus.

CHAP.

if thrown into the ſcale, would have weighed about twelve ounces Troy.

CHAP. VIII.

CHARACTER AND MANNERS OF THE ANGLO-SAXONS AND DANES.

THE Anglo-Saxons were tall, robuſt, and handſome. Their graceful appearance attracted the notice, and excited the admiration of Gregory the Great, when he beheld ſome Engliſh youths expoſed to ſale in the market-place at Rome. He was ſo much ſtruck with the beauty of their perſons, that when he was informed that they and their countrymen were not yet converted to Chriſtianity, he broke out into this exclamation. "How lamentable is it, that the prince of darkneſs ſhould have ſuch beautiful ſubjects, and that a nation ſo amiable in their bodies ſhould have none of the charms of divine grace in their ſouls! Their form is truly angelic, and they are fit to be the companions of the angels in heaven." Active in emergency, and inured to fatigue, the Anglo-Saxons were intrepid in danger. They were extremely hoſpitable, but addicted to exceſſive drinking, and very apt to quarrel when they got intoxicated. They were ſo fond of gaming, that after loſing their eſtates and effects, they often played away their perſons and liberties. Of the endowments of their minds it is not eaſy to form an eſtimate.

Many of the Anglo-Saxons were remarkable for their longevity. When the famous Turketul, who had been chancellor of England, and one of the greateſt warriors and ſtateſmen of his time, retired from the world, and became abbot of Croiland, he found three very aged monks in that monaſtery, to whom he paid particular attention. The eldeſt of theſe monks died in 973, after he had completed the 168th year of his age; the ſecond died the ſame year at the age of 142;

142; and the third died in 975, in the 115th year of his age.

The Danes, who conſtituted ſo great a proportion of the inhabitants, and were for ſome time the predominant people of England in this period, were of as bold and intrepid a ſpirit, as the Saxons had ever been, and rather more fierce and warlike. In thoſe ages, the people of Scandinavia, comprehending the kingdoms of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, breathed nothing but war, and were animated with a moſt aſtoniſhing ſpirit of enterpriſe and adventure. By their numerous fleets, they rode triumphant in all the European ſeas, carrying terror and deſolation to the coaſts of Germany, France, Spain, Italy, England, Scotland, and Ireland. The inhabitants of all theſe countries, eſpecially of the ſea-coaſt, lived in continual apprehenſions of thoſe dreadful enemies; and it made a part of their daily prayers to be preſerved by Providence from their deſtructive viſits. Born in fleets or in camps, the firſt objects, on which they fixed their eyes, were arms, ſtorms, battles, blood and ſlaughter. Nurſed and brought up in the midſt of theſe terrible objects, they by degrees became familiar, and at length delightful. Their childhood and their dawn of youth were wholly ſpent in running, leaping, climbing, ſwimming, wreſtling, boxing, fighting, and ſuch exerciſes as hardened both their ſouls and bodies, and diſpoſed and fitted them for the toils of war. As ſoon as they began to liſp, they were taught to ſing the exploits and victories of their anceſtors; their memories were ſtored with nothing but tales of warlike and piratical expeditions, of defeating their enemies, burning cities, plundering provinces, and of the wealth and glory acquired by brave exploits. With ſuch an education, it was no wonder that their youthful hearts ſoon began to beat high with martial ardour; and that they early became impatient to graſp the ſword and ſpear, and to mingle with their fathers, brothers, and companions, in the bloody conflict. It was one of their martial laws, "that a Dane who wiſhed to acquire the character

ter of a brave man, ſhould always attack *two* enemies' ſtand firm and receive the attack of *three*, retire only one pace from *four*, and fly from no fewer than *five*."

The Anglo-Saxons and Danes were rude and unpoliſhed in their addreſs, and haughty in their deportment. Their own writers frankly confeſs, that the French in thoſe times very much excelled them, and all the other nations of Europe, in politeneſs and elegance of manners. The manners of the Welſh, in this dark period, muſt have been even leſs delicate than thoſe of the Anglo-Saxons; for they thought it neceſſary to make a law, "that none of the courtiers ſhould give the queen a blow, or ſnatch any thing with violence out of her hands, under the penalty of forfeiting her majeſty's protection."

With regard to their marriage ceremonies, on the day before the wedding, all the friends and relations of the bridegroom having been invited, arrived at his houſe, and ſpent the time in feaſting, and in preparing for the approaching ceremony. Next morning the bridegroom's company mounted on horſeback, completely armed, and proceeded in great ſtate and order, to conduct the bride in ſafety to the houſe of her future huſband. The company proceeded in this martial array to do honour to the bride, and to prevent her from being intercepted and *carried off* by any of her former lovers. After the nuptial benediction was given, both the bridegroom and bride were crowned by the prieſt with crowns made of flowers, which were kept in the church for that purpoſe. Marriages, on that account, and for ſeveral other reaſons, were moſt commonly celebrated in the ſummer ſeaſon. The wedding-dreſſes of the bride and three of her maidens, and of the bridegroom and three of his attendants, were of a peculiar colour and faſhion, and could not be uſed on any other occaſion. Theſe dreſſes, therefore, were anciently the perquiſite of the minſtrels or muſicians, who had attended the wedding; but afterwards, when the minſtrels had fallen into diſgrace.

grace, they were commonly given to ſome church or monaſtery. At night the new-married pair were conducted to their apartment, and placed on the hymeneal couch, where they drank of the marriage cup with all who were preſent. Next morning the whole company aſſembled in their apartment before they aroſe, to hear the huſband declare the *morning-gift;* or what ſettlement and indulgences he would grant his wife; when a competent number of his relations became ſureties, that he would perform what he promiſed. The feaſtings and rejoicings continued ſeveral days after the marriage, and ſeldom ended till all the proviſions were conſumed. To indemnify the huſband, in ſome degree, for all theſe expences, the relations of both parties made him ſome preſents.

The laws of matrimony were obſerved with great ſtrictneſs. Examples of adultery were extremely rare, and puniſhed with much ſeverity. The huſband of an adultereſs, in the preſence of her relations, cut off her hair, ſtripped her almoſt naked, turned her out of his houſe, and whipped her from one end of the village to the other. A woman who had been thus expoſed, never recovered her character, and neither youth, beauty, nor riches, could ever procure her another huſband.

Ladies of high rank generally nurſed their own children. This laudable practice, however, did not continue to be univerſal among them, otherwiſe there would have been no occaſion for the following ſevere remark. "A certain wicked cuſtom hath ariſen among married people," ſays one, "that ſome ladies refuſe to nurſe the children whom they have brought forth, but deliver them to other women to be nurſed."

As the Anglo-Saxons admired valour and intrepidity above all other qualities, they were very anxious to diſcover whether their ſons would be poſſeſſed of them, and had various methods of putting their courage to the trial, even in infancy. Of thoſe modes the following was the moſt common. Upon a certain day appointed

appointed for that purpoſe, the family and friends being aſſembled, the father placed his infant ſon on the ſlanting ſide of the roof of his houſe, and there left him. If the child began to cry, and appeared to be afraid of falling, the ſpectators were much dejected, and prognoſticated that he would be a coward, but if he clung boldly to the thatch, and diſcovered no marks of fear, they were tranſported with joy, and pronounced that he would prove a brave warrior.

As to rites of ſepulture, it was ſo much the cuſtom of the Anglo-Saxons to depoſit the bodies of their dead on the ſurface of the ground, and to cover them with earth and ſtones, that they did this even when they buried them in churches; and the floors of ſome churches were ſo much incumbered with theſe little mounts, that they became quite unfit for the celebration of divine ſervice, and were on that account abandoned. The inconveniencies of this ancient practice were at length ſo ſenſibly felt, that ſeveral canons were made againſt burying any in churches, except prieſts, or ſaints, or ſuch as paid very well for that privilege. It was likewiſe decreed, that thoſe who were buried in them ſhould be depoſited in graves of a proper depth under the pavement. The houſe in which a dead body lay before it was buried, was a ſcene of continued feaſting, ſinging, dancing, and all kinds of diverſions, which occaſioned no ſmall expence to the family of the deceaſed. In ſome places of the north, they kept the dead unburied, till they had conſumed all the wealth which they had left behind them in games and feaſtings. This cuſtom had prevailed in the times of Paganiſm, and was diſcouraged by the church; but it was too agreeable to their exceſſive fondneſs for feaſting and rioting to be ſoon abandoned.

The Anglo-Saxon kings, queens, and nobles, lived in a kind of rude pomp and ſtate, and were always ſurrounded with a crowd of officers, retainers, and ſervants. Canute the Great, who was the richeſt and moſt magnificent prince in Europe of his time, never

appeared

appeared in public, nor made any journey, without a retinue of three thousand armed men.

The Teutonic or Anglo-Saxon language is so ancient, that it is impossible to trace it to its origin. Some learned men have discovered a remarkable affinity between the Greek and Anglo-Saxon tongues, both in their radical words, and in their general structure. With this view they have collected a considerable number of words, which are names of the most necessary and common things, and of a similar sound and sense in both languages. The resemblance between the Anglo-Saxon and modern English is so great, that most of the words of the former are still in use, though many of them are much changed in their spelling and meaning.

The Anglo-Saxons and Danes long retained their fondness for bathing in warm-water, which they had derived from their ancestors the ancient Germans. In their laws, the warm bath is always considered as one of the necessaries of life; and no less indispensable than victuals, drink, or clothing. One of the most common penances enjoined by the canons of the church in those days, to such as had been guilty of great sins, was, to abstain, for a certain time, from the warm bath, and to give victuals, drink, clothes, firing, bath, and beds, to a certain number of poor people. On the other hand, they had a very great aversion to bathing in cold water, which was also enjoined as a penance. To bathe at least every Saturday was the constant practice of all, who had any regard to personal propriety, and wished to recommend themselves to the favour of the ladies.

The nobility spent the greatest part of their revenues in giving entertainments to their friends and followers. These feasts were more remarkable for their abundance than for their elegance. Some kinds of provisions were then used which would not now be touched, but in the greatest extremities of famine. The Danish inhabitants of Northumberland, in particular, were fond of horse-flesh, which they devoured in great quantities.

tities*. Ale was the favourite liquor of the Anglo-Saxons and Danes, as it had been of their German anceſtors. As trade was in its infancy, wine was both ſcarce and dear in Britain, during this period. Mead was alſo one of the luxuries of life, and could only be procured by perſons of conſiderable opulence. Pigment was one of the richeſt and moſt delicious liquors of thoſe times, and ſo much admired both in England and on the continent, that it was commonly called nectar. It was a ſweet and odoriferous liquor, made of honey, wine, and ſpiceries of various kinds. Morat was alſo eſteemed a delicacy, and was only found at the tables of the great. It was made of honey, diluted with the juice of mulberries.

As war was the chief delight of the Anglo-Saxon thanes, and their followers, the amuſements of their youth, and even of their riper years, were of a martial nature. A young warrior thus recounts the exerciſes by which he had acquired dexterity by conſtant practice: "I fight valiantly; I ſit firmly on horſeback; I am inured to ſwimming; I know how to run along on ſkates; I dart the lance, and am ſkilful at the oar†." Their fondneſs for games of chance has already been mentioned. When a young nobleman applied to a father for permiſſion to pay his addreſſes to his daughter, the parent generally made a trial of his temper, by playing with him at dice and cheſs, before he gave him an anſwer. The game of backgammon was invented in Wales, during this period, and derives its name from the two Welſh words, *back* and *cammon*, ſignifying *little battle*.

* Wilkins. † Northern Antiquities.

BOOK II.

CHAP. I.

MILITARY HISTORY FROM THE NORMAN CONQUEST, A. D. 1066, TO THE DEATH OF KING JOHN, A. D. 1216.

WE have already ſeen William, duke of Normandy, victorious at Haſtings. Nothing could exceed the aſtoniſhment of the Engliſh nation, when made acquainted with the iſſue of that unfortunate battle. In order to terminate an enterpriſe, which he knew diſpatch alone could render ſucceſsful, William inſtantly put his army in motion, and advanced by forced marches to London. His approach increaſed the general alarm, and the diviſions already prevalent in the Engliſh councils. The ſuperior clergy, of whom the majority were his own countrymen, began to declare in his favour; and the pope's bull, by which his undertaking was avowed and conſecrated, was now openly offered as a reaſon for general ſubmiſſion. Other cauſes rendered it difficult for the Engliſh nation to defend their liberties, in this critical emergency. The body of the people had, in a great meaſure, loſt their ancient pride and independent ſpirit, by their recent ſubjection to the Danes, and deemed the inconveniencies of admitting the pretenſions of William leſs dreadful than thoſe of bloodſhed, war, and reſiſtance. A repulſe, which a party of Londoners received from five hundred Norman horſe, renewed the terror of the great defeat at Haſtings. The eaſy ſubmiſſion of all the inhabitants of Kent was an additional diſcouragement to them; and the burning of Southwark made

the citizens of London dread a like fate for their capital. Few men entertained any thoughts but of felf-preſervation

The biſhops ſet the example. The nobles, with Edgar Atheling, the natural heir to the crown, waited upon William, and declared their intention of yielding to his authority. All ſeemed in a ſtate of harmony; and William, who at firſt was inclined to defer his coronation till the conſent of the nation at large ſhould be obtained, now haſtened the ceremony. It was accordingly performed in Weſtminſter-Abbey, in preſence of the moſt conſiderable nobility and gentry, both Engliſh and Norman, with apparent ſatisfaction.

The new ſovereign confirmed the liberties and immunities of London, and all the other cities of England. In his whole adminiſtration he bore the ſemblance of the lawful prince, not of the conqueror; ſo that the Engliſh began to flatter themſelves they had only changed the ſucceſſion of their ſovereigns, (a matter which gave them little concern), without injury to their form of government.

But William, notwithſtanding this ſeeming confidence and friendſhip, which he expreſſed for his Engliſh ſubjects, took care to place all real power in the hands of the Normans. He every where diſarmed the inhabitants. He built fortreſſes in all the principal cities, where he quartered Norman ſoldiers. He beſtowed the forfeited eſtates on the moſt powerful of his captains. To one of his favourites he gave the whole county of Cheſter, which he erected into a palatinate, and rendered by his grant almoſt independent of the crown. While his civil adminiſtration wore the face of the legal magiſtrate, his military inſtitutions were thoſe of a maſter and tyrant.

By this mixture of rigour and lenity, he ſo ſubdued and compoſed the minds of the people of England, that he ventured to viſit his native country, within ſix months after he had left it. On this oſtentatious tour the Engliſh nobles accompanied the king. Their dreſs, equipage, and rich plate, aſtoniſhed the Normans,

mans, who, nevertheleſs, looked on them as priſoners led in triumph. Mean while Edgar Atheling, although reſpectfully treated by the new ſovereign, thought proper to retire from England with his ſiſters. His friends aſſert that his flight was guided by heaven, as it gained Malcolm of Scotland for the princeſs Margaret, by whoſe offspring the Saxon race was reſtored to the throne of England, in the next reign but one.

Inſurrections now appeared in every part of the country, which ſerved only to rivet the chains of the Engliſh. Acquainted with the reſtleſs diſpoſition of the Northumbrians, who had begun the revolt, and determined to incapacitate them from ever more moleſting him, William iſſued orders for laying waſte that fertile country, which, to the extent of ſixty miles, lies between the Humber and the Tees. The houſes were reduced to aſhes by the unfeeling Normans; the cattle were ſeized and driven away; the inſtruments of huſbandry were deſtroyed; and the inhabitants were compelled either to ſeek a ſubſiſtence in the ſouthern parts of Scotland, or to periſh in the woods by cold and hunger, which many of them choſe rather to do than abandon their native ſoil. The lives of an hundred thouſand perſons are computed to have been ſacrificed to this ſtroke of barbarous policy. But William was now determined to proceed to extremities againſt all the natives of England, and to reduce them to a condition in which they ſhould be no longer formidable to his government. It was a crime ſufficient in an Engliſhman to be opulent, noble, or powerful; and the policy of the king concurring with the rapacity of needy adventurers, produced an almoſt total revolution in the landed property of the kingdom. Ancient and honourable families were reduced to beggary. The nobles were every where treated with ignominy and contempt, whilſt their eſtates were divided amongſt the new-comers, ſubject to thoſe military ſervices which had been uſed on the continent.

At this period likewiſe, a complete change was made in the eccleſiaſtical as well as in the civil ſtate of the

realm; for under the pretext of disaffection to the Norman government, almost every Anglo-Saxon of rank or wealth in the church was deprived of his benefice, and replaced by a foreigner. To effect these alterations, the pope, whose vanity and avarice the sagacious conqueror took care to gratify, aided him with the full force of his then exorbitant authority. The king had even entertained the difficult project of totally abolishing the language of this country. He ordered the English youth to be instructed in the French tongue, in all the schools throughout the kingdom. The pleadings in the supreme courts of judicature were in French. The deeds were often drawn in the same language; and the laws were composed in that idiom. No other tongue was used at court. It became the language of all fashionable societies, and the natives themselves affected to excel in it. To this attempt of the Conqueror, and to the foreign dominions so long annexed to the crown of England, we owe that predominant mixture of French in our language. In short, nothing was left untried, which had a tendency to obliterate every trace of the Anglo-Saxon constitution.

William built the stone square tower at London, commonly called the *White Tower*. He also caused a general survey of all the lands of England to be made. This curious and political work, called Domesday-book, is still preserved in the Exchequer. No nation now existing can boast such valuable monuments of antiquity, in so entire preservation; nor can there be a higher proof of their genuine worth, than their being allowed as incontrovertible evidence in every court of law.

William's love of the chace prompted him not only to enact severe laws against those who interfered with him in this favourite amusement, but also to depopulate the country in Hampshire, to the extent of thirty miles. Having turned out the inhabitants, and destroyed all the villages, houses, plantations, and even churches, which stood within that tract, he reserved it

for the habitation of wild beasts, and distinguished it by the name of the New Forest.

But the repose of this fortunate king was disturbed in his old age, by the rebellion of his eldest son Robert, who had been appointed governor of Normandy, but now assumed the government as sovereign of that province, in which he was favoured by the king of France. William seeing a war inevitable, entered upon it with his usual vigour, and with incredible celerity, transporting a brave English army, invaded France.

As the grounds of a quarrel between the Norman and Philip were not very important, a truce was soon concluded, and a perfect harmony might have been restored, had not the French monarch dropt a sarcastic remark on the enormous corpulency of his antagonist. William had kept his bed some days, and was told that Philip had enquired, whether the King of England was not yet delivered of his great belly? This coarse jest had fatal consequences. For the irritated William, alluding to the customs of France, sent word to Philip that "ten thousand lances should attend his churching at Notre Dame, instead of the usual tapers." To make this promise good, he flew to arms, and laid waste the Isle of France to the walls of Paris. He took and burnt the city of Mantes, sparing neither churches, convents, nor the hapless priests and nuns, who had fled to their shelter. This falling out in the most sultry part of a very hot summer, the heat of the weather joined to that of the flames which consumed Mantes, and a bruise from the pommel of his saddle, finished the earthly course of the hitherto invincible hero, on the ninth of September, 1087.

The spirit of William I. was bold and enterprising, yet guided by prudence; and his exorbitant ambition, which lay little under the restraints of justice, and still less under those of humanity, ever submitted to the dictates of reason and sound policy. Though not insensible to generosity, he was hardened against compassion, and he seemed equally ostentatious, and ambitious of eclat, in his clemency and in his vengeance.

William II. surnamed Rufus, or the Red, from the colour of his hair, a brave and intrepid prince, was engaged in perpetual wars with his rebellious subjects. The succession to the crown of England was disputed between him and his elder brother, Robert, whom the Normans very much loved, but was carried in his favour. About this time the crusades to the Holy Land began, and Robert, who was among the first to engage, accommodated matters with William for a sum of money, which he levied from the clergy. Numbers of undisciplined enthusiasts, under Peter the Hermit, and Walter the Pennyless, now plundered and fought their way through Hungary to the walls of Constantinople, leaving myriads of their comrades sacrificed to the revenge of those whom they had pillaged. The emperor Alexis relieved them, but, as they laid waste the suburbs of his capital, he encouraged Walter to lead them against the Turks, by whom they were all cut to pieces.

William behaved with great generosity towards Edgar Atheling and the court of Scotland, notwithstanding all the provocations he had received from that quarter. He was accidentally killed, as he was hunting in the New Forest, by Sir Walter Tyrrel, a French gentleman, who instantly embarked for the Holy Land to expiate his involuntary crime. The body was conveyed to Winchester in a common cart. A tomb erected over it was broken to pieces in the last civil wars, and a large gold ring with a silver chalice were found mingled with the royal dust. This prince built Westminster-hall, as it now stands, and added several works to the tower, which he surrounded with a wall and ditch.

A.D. 1100.

Prince Henry, surnamed *Beauclerc*, on account of his learning, was hunting with Rufus in the New Forest, when he received intelligence of that monarch's death. Having therefore secured the royal treasure at Winchester, which he knew to be necessary for facilitating his designs on the crown, he hastened with it to London, where in less than three days he was crowned.

Thus

Thus by his courage and celerity he intruded himſelf into the vacant throne, no one having ſufficient ſpirit or ſenſe of duty to appear in favour of Robert, who was ſtill engaged in the Cruſade. He rendered himſelf ſtill more popular by his marriage with Matilda, daughter of Malcolm, king of Scotland, and niece to Edgar Atheling. This lady, on the death of her father, had been educated in a nunnery in England, and had worn the veil, but never taken the vows; a circumſtance which was, at firſt, thought to militate againſt her being permitted to marry. It was however determined in a council of prelates and nobles, that as ſhe had aſſumed the veil for the protection of her honour, during the late troubles, ſhe was ſtill free to marry; and her nuptials were celebrated with great pomp and ſolemnity. Thus was the long breach between the Saxon and Norman intereſts finally united, to the great ſatisfaction of the Engliſh.

Henry made himſelf maſter of the duchy of Normandy, and, with a moſt ungenerous meanneſs, detained his brother Robert a priſoner, for 28 years, till the time of his death. He was afterwards engaged in a bloody but ſucceſsful war with France. He died in the ſeventy-eighth year of his age, having ſettled the ſucceſſion upon his daughter, the empreſs Matilda, widow to Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and her ſon Henry, by her ſecond huſband Geoffry Plantagenet, earl of Anjou.

The crown of England, however, was ſeized by Stephen earl of Blois, the ſon of Adela, fourth daughter to William the Conqueror. In the mean time, Matilda found a generous protector in her uncle, David, king of Scotland, and a worthy ſubject in her natural brother Robert, earl of Glouceſter, who headed her party, till her ſon was of age. A long and bloody war enſued, when the barons, who dreaded the power of the clergy, inclined towards Matilda; and Stephen, having been abandoned by his partizans, was defeated and taken priſoner in 1141. The nobility and clergy now demanded to be governed by the

Saxon laws, according to the charter granted by Henry I. and finding Matilda refractory, they drove her out of England in 1142. Stephen having been exchanged for the earl of Glouceſter, who had been likewiſe taken priſoner, upon obtaining his liberty, found that his clergy and nobility had in fact excluded him from the government, by building 1100 caſtles, where each owner lived as an independent prince. Stephen attempted to force them to declare his ſon, Euſtace, heir apparent to the kingdom. This exaſperated the clergy ſo much, that they invited over young Henry of Anjou, who landed in England with an army of foreigners. Euſtace dying about this time, his father Stephen, was permitted to retain the name and office of king, during his life; and Henry, who was in fact inveſted with the chief executive power, was acknowledged his ſucceſſor.

Henry II. ſurnamed Plantagenet, was by far the greateſt prince of his time. The firſt acts of his government correſponded with the high idea entertained of his abilities. He diſmiſſed all the mercenary troops, and demoliſhed the new-erected caſtles, which had proved ſo many ſanctuaries to rebels. But the exorbitant power of the clergy, and the conduct of Thomas à Becket, whom he had raiſed from a low ſtation to the dignity of chancellor, and primate of all England, gave him great uneaſineſs. Becket, while Chancellor, was pompous in his retinue, ſumptuous in his furniture, and luxurious in his table, beyond what Britain had ever ſeen in a ſubject. His houſe was a place of education for the ſons of the chief nobility, and the king himſelf often condeſcended to partake of his entertainments. His amuſements were as gay, as his manner of life was ſplendid and elegant. He employed himſelf, at leiſure hours, in hunting, hawking, gaming, and horſemanſhip. His complaiſance and good humour had rendered him agreeable, and his induſtry and abilities uſeful to his maſter. But no ſooner was he inſtalled in the ſee of Canterbury, which rendered him the ſecond perſon in the kingdom, than he ſecretly

ſecretly aſpired at being the firſt. He maintained in his retinue and attendants alone, his uſual pomp and luſtre; in his own perſon he affected the greateſt auſterity and mortification. He wore ſack-cloth next his ſkin; his food was generally bread, and his drink water; he lacerated his back with frequent diſcipline, and he daily waſhed the feet of thirteen beggars. Thus did Becket, by a pretended ſanctity, ſet himſelf up the champion of the clergy in oppoſition to the crown. The king aſſembled his nobility at Clarendon, a name ſtill famous for the conſtitutions there enacted, which aboliſhed the authority of the Romiſh ſee over the Engliſh clergy. Becket finding it in vain to reſiſt the ſtream, ſigned thoſe conſtitutions, till they could be ratified by the pope, who, as he foreſaw, rejected them. In the mean time, however, being convicted of robbing the public, while he was chancellor, he fled to France, where the pope and the French king eſpouſed his cauſe. The conſequence was that all the Engliſh clergy on the king's ſide were excommunicated, and the ſubjects abſolved from their allegiance. This diſconcerted Henry ſo much, that he ſubmitted to treat with his rebel prelate, and, on one occaſion, humiliated himſelf ſo far, as to hold the ſtirrup while he mounted his horſe. This condeſcenſion ſwelled his pride, and increaſed his inſolence, which at laſt became inſupportable to Henry. Finding that he was only the firſt ſubject in his own dominions, he was heard to ſay in the anguiſh of his heart, "Is there none who will revenge his monarch's cauſe upon this audacious prieſt?" Theſe words reached the ears of four knights, who immediately ſet out for Canterbury, and murdered Becket before the altar of his own church. Such was the tragical death of this lofty and inflexible prelate, who was able to cover from the world, and probably from himſelf, the efforts of pride and ambition, under the diſguiſe of ſanctity, and of zeal for the intereſts of religion. A. D. 1171.

The intelligence of this murder threw Henry into the greateſt conſternation. He ſhut himſelf up for

three days, and refuſed to take any ſuſtenance. He chiefly dreaded the diſpleaſure of the pope. He found means, however, by a well-timed embaſſy, to divert the pontiff's anathemas from himſelf: they were only levelled in general againſt all the actors, accomplices, and abettors of the murder. The clergy, though their rage was thus happily diverted from falling immediately on the king, were not idle in extolling the merits of Becket's martyrdom. Endleſs were their panegyrics on his piety. Two years after his death he was canonized by pope Alexander; miracles were wrought by his reliques; a ſolemn jubilee for celebrating his virtues was eſtabliſhed; his body was removed to a magnificent ſhrine, enriched with preſents from all parts of Chriſtendom; and it is computed that, in one year, above an hundred thouſand pilgrims arrived at Canterbury, and paid their devotions at his tomb. It is indeed a mortifying reflection to thoſe who are actuated by the love of fame, ſo juſtly denominated the laſt infirmity of noble minds, that the wiſeſt legiſlator, and moſt exalted genius that ever reformed or enlightened the world, can never expect ſuch tributes of praiſe, as are laviſhed on the memory of pretended ſaints. It is only a conqueror, by no means an amiable character, who can pretend to the attainment of equal renown and glory.

As ſoon as Henry found that he was in no immediate danger from the thunders of the vatican, he undertook an expedition againſt Ireland, which he conquered.

A. D. 1174. His marriage with Eleanor the divorced queen of France, heireſs of Guienne and Poictou, made him very powerful in that country.

About this time, the king of Scotland invaded England with an army of 80,000 men. Senſible of his danger, and of the effects of ſuperſtition on the minds of the people, Henry went barefoot to Becket's tomb, proſtrated himſelf before the ſhrine of the ſaint, remained in faſting and prayer during a whole day, and watched all night the holy reliques. He even ſubmitted to a penance ſtill more ſingular and humiliating.

He aſſembled a chapter of the monks, put a ſcourge of diſcipline into the hands of each, and preſented his bare ſhoulders to the laſhes which theſe eccleſiaſtics inflicted upon him! Next morning he received abſolution; and his generals obtained, on the ſame day, a great victory over the Scots, which was regarded as a proof of his final reconciliation with Heaven, and with Thomas à Becket.

The amours of this monarch rendered him unhappy in his old age. Among the number of his miſtreſſes, was Roſamond, daughter of Lord Clifford, uſually diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of *Fair Roſamond*, on account of her exquiſite beauty. We are told, that Henry, who entertained a violent and laſting affection for this lady, concealed her in a labyrinth, in Woodſtock park, where ſhe was at length diſcovered, and poiſoned by the queen; but this part of the ſtory, though adopted by many hiſtorical writers, ſeems to be fabulous. His infidelity, however, was reſented by Eleanor, who encouraged his ſons in repeated rebellions, which ſo affected their father, that he died of a fever at Chinon in France, in the 57th year of his age. For wiſdom, virtue, and abilities, Henry was the greateſt prince of his time. A.D. 1189.

Richard I. the eldeſt ſurviving ſon of Henry II. ſurnamed Cœur de Lion, from his great courage, made a moſt magnificent cruſade to the Holy Land, where he took Aſcalon, and performed prodigies of valour. After ſeveral glorious, but fruitleſs campaigns, he made a truce of three years with Saladin, emperor of the Saracens. In his return to England, he was treacherouſly ſurpriſed by the duke of Auſtria, who ſent him a priſoner to Henry VI. His ranſom was fixed by the ſordid emperor at three hundred thouſand pounds.

The truce being expired, the war between England and France was reſumed, and carried on by both parties with great animoſity and cruelty. At laſt, however, Richard was killed at the ſiege of Chalus. One Bertrand de Gourdon, an A.D. 1199.

archer, took aim at him, and pierced his ſhoulder with an arrow. The king immediately gave orders for the aſſault, took the place, and hanged all the garriſon, except Gourdon, whom he reſerved for a more cruel execution. The wound in itſelf was not dangerous; but the unſkilful ſurgeon in extracting the arrow, ſo rankled the part, that a gangrene enſued, and it proved mortal. When Richard found his end approaching, he ſent for Gourdon, and aſked why he ſought his life. "My father, and my two brothers," replied the undaunted ſoldier, "fell by your ſword, and you intended to have executed me. I am now in your power, and you may do your worſt: but I ſhall endure the moſt ſevere torments with pleaſure, ſince Heaven has afforded me ſuch revenge, as, with my own hand, to be the cauſe of your death." Struck with the boldneſs of the reply, and humbled by his approaching diſſolution, Richard ordered the priſoner to be ſet at liberty. But his blood-thirſty general, Marcadee, a ſtranger to ſuch generoſity, ſeized the unhappy man, flayed him alive, and then hanged him.

The reign of John, who ſucceeded his brother Richard I. is infamous in the Engliſh hiſtory. He put to death prince Arthur, who had the hereditary right to the crown, being the eldeſt ſon of his brother Geoffry. His misfortunes commenced with this crime. All men were ſtruck with horror at the inhuman deed, and he was from that moment deteſted by his ſubjects, both in England and on the continent. Through his baſeneſs and cowardice, the Engliſh loſt the greateſt part of their territories in France. The church alſo, which had not declined a conteſt with the moſt powerful monarchs, took advantage of John's imbecility, and with the moſt aggravating circumſtances of inſolence and ſcorn, forced her yoke upon him. Pope Innocent ordered the monks of Canterbury, without the king's permiſſion, to elect for their primate, cardinal Langton, an Engliſhman by birth, but attached to the ſee of Rome.

John

John was greatly enraged when he heard of this infringement of his prerogative, and, venting his paſſion on the monks, ſent two knights to expel them from their convent, and take poſſeſſion of their revenues. Upon which the pope, after many admonitions and threats, laid the kingdom under an interdict. By this ſentence, the nation was of a ſudden deprived of all the exterior rites of religion. The altars were deſpoiled of their ornaments. The croſſes, the reliques, the images, the ſtatues of the ſaints, were laid on the ground; and, as if the air itſelf were profaned, and might pollute them by its contact, the prieſts carefully covered them up, even from their own approach and veneration. The uſe of bells entirely ceaſed in all the churches. The bells themſelves were removed from the ſteeples, and laid on the ground with the other ſacred utenſils. Maſs was celebrated with ſhut doors, and none but the prieſts were admitted to that holy inſtitution. The dead were not interred in conſecrated ground, but were thrown into ditches, or buried in common fields. The people were prohibited the uſe of meat, as in Lent, and debarred from all pleaſures and amuſements. They were forbidden even to ſalute each other, or ſo much as to ſhave their beards, and give any decent attention to their perſon and apparel. Every thing wore the appearance of the deepeſt diſtreſs, and of the moſt immediate apprehenſions of divine vengeance and indignation.

John at laſt ſo much dreaded a French invaſion, that he became a tributary to the pope, and laid his crown and regalia at the foot of the legate Pandolf, who kept them five days. The great barons reſented his meanneſs, by taking arms; but he repeated his ſhameful ſubmiſſions to the pope, and, after experiencing various fortunes of war, was at laſt brought ſo low, that the barons obliged him to ſign the great deed ſo well known by the name of *Magna Charta*. A. D. 1216. This buſineſs was tranſacted at Runnemede, between Windſor and Staines, a ſpot ever ſince deſervedly celebrated, and even hallowed by every zealous lover of liberty.

liberty. Though John seemed to submit to all these regulations, he only dissembled, till he could find a favourable opportunity for annulling all his concessions. Having called upon the pope for protection, the barons withdrew their allegiance from him, and transferred it to Lewis, the eldest son of Philip Augustus king of France. But the imprudent partiality of Lewis to his countrymen encreased that jealousy, which it was so natural for the English to entertain in their present situation, and did great hurt to his cause. Many of the dissatisfied barons returned to the king's party; and John was preparing to make a last effort for his crown, when death put an end to his troubles and his crimes. His character is nothing but a complication of vices, equally mean and odious, ruinous to himself and destructive to his people.

CHAP. II.

THE RELIGIOUS SPIRIT OF THIS PERIOD.

A BLIND obedience to the pope being as much a tenet of the Norman monks, as it had been of their predecessors the Anglo-Saxons, little change was made in the English church by the invasion in 1066. But the high-spirited foreigners, who replaced the churchmen, whom William drove from their benefices, soon quarreled among themselves about precedence; and it was not without great difficulty that the archbishop of York could be brought to yield obedience to Lanfranc of Canterbury, a zealous champion for the doctrine of transubstantiation, then little known in Great Britain.

The celibacy of the clergy, though enjoined by a thousand canons, met with great opposition. So difficult is it for the laws of men to overcome the laws of nature! By one of the canons of an English council, held at Winchester in 1076, the secular clergy who had wives, are allowed to keep them; which is a sufficient

ficiet proof, that they formed a very powerful party. But thoſe who had not wives, are forbidden to marry; and biſhops are prohibited for the future to ordain any man who had a wife.

The cruſades were the plague of Europe, and the ſcourge of Aſia and Egypt, during this period. They ruined millions of families, and involved even the opulent in miſery and want. To defray the enormous expence, the rich oppreſſed their vaſſals, and obliged them, amidſt poverty and deſpair, to enliſt in the cruſade. The cruſaders were inveſted by the pope with privileges, detrimental to the honours of the Deity, and the common rights of their neighbours. They were exempted from all proſecution for debt, during the time of their ſervice. They paid no taxes to their ſovereigns, nor any intereſt for what money they had borrowed. They had power to alienate their lands without the conſent of their ſuperiors. They had the full pardon of all their ſins, paſt, preſent, or future, confirmed to them by the papal bulls; and they were aſſured that angels would carry their ſouls ſtraight to heaven, if they met their death in the holy warfare. Europe by means of theſe expeditions, was drained of her rulers, her inhabitants, and wealth. Murders, rapes, and robberies, were every where committed with impunity, by theſe pretended armies of Chriſt, whilſt Aſia, and part of Europe, exhibited a ſcene of blood, and horrid devaſtation. Previous to their march, they diſpoſed of their poſſeſſions, as at the point of death. To ſecure the protection of heaven, amidſt their expected dangers, they bequeathed large donations to the monks and prieſts; and thoſe who had law-ſuits with the clergy, gave them up in their favour.

A great number of the biſhops and abbots, having accompanied the ſacred troops as commanders, volunteers, or chaplains, the prieſts and monks, in their abſence, abandoned themſelves to luxury and wickedneſs. We are told by Giraldus Cambrenſis, that the monks and prior of St. Swithin threw themſelves, one

day,

day, proſtrate on the ground and in the mire before Henry II. complaining with many tears and much doleful lamentation, that the biſhop of Wincheſter, who was alſo their abbot, had cut off three diſhes from their table. How many has he left you? ſaid the King. Ten only, replied the diſconſolate monks. I myſelf, exclaimed the king, never had more than three: and I enjoin your biſhop to reduce you to the ſame number.

CHAP. III.

OF THE ANGLO-NORMAN CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS.

THE feudal law is the chief foundation both of the government and juriſ-prudence eſtabliſhed by the Normans in England. According to the principles of this law, the king was the ſupreme lord of the landed property; for the term feudal implies, that any poſſeſſion ſo called is held from another. The land was conceived to be a ſpecies of benefice, for which the vaſſal owed ſtated ſervices to his baron, as the baron himſelf did to the crown. The vaſſal was obliged to defend his baron in war; and the baron, at the head of his vaſſals, was bound to fight in defence of the king and kingdom.

As the duke of Normandy, by taking the uſual oath adminiſtered to the Anglo-Saxon kings at their coronation, had ſolemnly engaged to maintain the conſtitution, the Engliſh nation had reaſon to believe, that they had only changed their native ſovereign for one of foreign extraction. But though William for ſome time affected moderation, and even adopted ſome of the laws of Edward the Confeſſor, he ſoon utterly ſubverted the form of government, and in its ſtead ſubſtituted a rigid feudal monarchy, or military ariſtocracy, in which a regular chain of ſubordination and ſervice was eſtabliſhed. This was attended with a grievous de-

preſſion

preſſion of the body of the people, who were daily expoſed to the inſults and exactions of the nobles, whoſe vaſſals they were, and from whoſe oppreſſive juriſdiction it was difficult and dangerous for them to appeal. This depreſſion, as might be expected, was more complete and humiliating in England, under the firſt Anglo-Norman princes, than in any other feudal government. William I. by his artful and tyrannical policy, by attainders and confiſcations, had become, in the courſe of his reign, proprietor of almoſt all the lands in the kingdom. Theſe lands, however, he could not poſſibly retain in his own hands. He was under the neceſſity of beſtowing the greater part of them on his Norman captains, or nobles, the companions of his conqueſt, and the inſtruments of his tyranny, who had led their own vaſſals to battle. But thoſe grants he clogged with heavy feudal ſervices, and payments, which none dared to refuſe. The barons and tenants who held immediately of the crown, and, with the dignified clergy, formed the national aſſembly, impoſed obligations yet more ſevere on their vaſſals, the inferior land-holders, conſiſting chiefly of unhappy Engliſh gentlemen, for whom they had no bowels of compaſſion. The ſtate of England, at the death of William the conqueror, is thus deſcribed by one of our ancient hiſtorians, who was almoſt contemporary with that prince. "The Normans," ſays he, "had now fully executed the wrath of heaven upon the Engliſh. There was hardly one of that nation, who poſſeſſed any power; they were all involved in ſervitude and ſorrow; inſomuch, that to be called an Engliſhman was conſidered as a reproach. In thoſe miſerable times many oppreſſive taxes and tyrannical cuſtoms were introduced. The king himſelf, when he had let his lands at their full value, if another tenant came and offered more, gave them to him who offered moſt: and the great men were inflamed with ſuch a *rage for money* that they did not care by what means it was acquired. The more they *talked* of juſtice, the more *injuriouſly* they acted. Thoſe who were called

called juſticiaries, were the fountains of all iniquity. Sheriffs and judges, whoſe peculiar duty it was to pronounce righteous judgments, were the moſt cruel of all tyrants, and greater plunderers than common thieves and robbers*."

The prerogative of buying, in preference to others, all things neceſſary for their court and caſtles, commonly called *purveyance*, which belonged to the kings of England in this period, was a ſource of infinite vexations and injuries to the people. "The purveyors, who attended the court," ſays a reſpectable hiſtorian, "plundered and deſtroyed the whole country through which the king paſſed, without any controul. Some of them were ſo intoxicated with malice, that when they could not conſume all the proviſions in the houſes which they invaded, they either ſold or burnt them. After having waſhed their horſes' feet with the liquors which they could not drink, they let them run out on the ground, or deſtroyed them in ſome other way."

The Saxon courts of juſtice were now ſuffered to decline. The county-court in particular, the dignity of which, for ſeveral years, ſurvived the Norman invaſion, fell by a ſtroke of deſpotiſm equally unjuſt and impolitic. For, about the year 1085, the biſhops and abbots were prohibited from ſitting there. On this, the lay-noblemen thought it beneath their dignity to attend, and that hall of juſtice, whoſe bench uſed to be crowded with prelates and peers, was gradually deſerted.

The king's court, after the conqueſt, was very ſplendid. Here ſat the great officers of the crown, the juſtices, and the barons. In the monarch's abſence the firſt juſticiary always preſided. The ceremonies were magnificent, and the habits brilliant and coſtly. Could pomp and parade have compenſated for the want of equity, the Saxon juris-prudence might have been forgotten. Courts were held by the barons at the

* Henry of Huntingdon.

halls

halls of their caſtles, where cauſes of a trivial nature were decided.

Fines were a conſiderable branch of the royal revenue. It appears from the ancient records of the exchequer, which are ſtill extant, that the kings of England, at this period, like eaſtern princes, could not be approached without a preſent. Even juſtice itſelf was bought and ſold. The ſupreme court of judicature was open to none, who did not bring preſents to the king. The barons of the exchequer were not aſhamed to inſert, as an article in their records, that the county of Norfolk gave money that they might be *fairly dealt with*. Enormous ſums were paid by females, either for leave to marry, or, more commonly, that they might not be forced to wed againſt their will. Even ladies of high rank were not exempted from ſuch impoſitions; for we find Lucia, counteſs of Cheſter, paying "five marks of ſilver, that ſhe might not, during next five years only, be compelled to marry *." Ought not we then to think ourſelves very happy, that we live in a civilized age, and under a limited monarchy?

Thoſe who had not money to compound for murders, rapes, and other capital offences, were put to death; and the common place of execution was Smithfield.

But the rigour of the Anglo-Norman government, and the licentious ſpirit of the nobles, proved ultimately favourable to general liberty. The oppreſſed people looked up to the king for protection; and circumſtances enabled them to obtain it. The defect of the title of William II. and of Henry I. induced them to liſten to the complaints of their Engliſh ſubjects, and to redreſs many of their grievances. The people, in ſome meaſure ſatisfied with the relief afforded them, became ſenſible of their conſequence, and of their obligations to the crown; while the barons, finding themſelves in quiet poſſeſſion of their Engliſh eſtates,

* Madox's account of the Exchequer.

and

and apprehending no future diſturbance from the natives, bore with impatience the burdens impoſed upon them by William I. and to which they had readily ſubmitted, in the hour of conqueſt and of danger. They ſaw the neceſſity of being more indulgent to their vaſſals, in order to obtain ſufficient force, to enable them to retrench the prerogatives of the ſovereign, and of connecting their cauſe with that of the people.

Thus reſtored to a ſhare in the legiſlature, the Engliſh commonalty felt more fully their own importance; and by a long and vigorous ſtruggle, maintained with unexampled perſeverance, they wreſted from both the king and the nobles, all the other rights of a free people, of which their Anglo-Saxon anceſtors had been robbed by the violent invaſion, and cruel policy of William the Norman. To thoſe rights they were entitled as men, by the great law of nature and reaſon, which declares the welfare of the whole community to be the end of all civil government; and as Engliſhmen, by inheritance.

CHAP. IV.

LITERATURE. A. D. 1066—1216.

MOST of the perſons who attempted to revive literature, in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, had derived their principles of ſcience from the Greeks in the Eaſtern empire, or the Arabs in Spain and Africa. Both thoſe people, acute and inquiſitive to exceſs, corrupted the ſciences which they cultivated. The Greeks rendered theology a ſyſtem of ſpeculative refinement, or endleſs controverſy; and the Arabs communicated to philoſophy a ſpirit of metaphyſical and frivolous ſubtlety. Miſled by theſe guides, the perſons who firſt applied to ſcience were involved in a maze of intricate inquiries. Inſtead of allowing their fancy to take its natural range, and produce ſuch works of elegant invention, as might have improved

the

the taſte, and refined the ſentiments of the age, they ſpent the whole force of their genius in ſpeculations as unavailing as they were difficult.

Judicial aſtrology, in this period, was cultivated with more diligence than the moſt uſeful ſcience. None, indeed, but aſtrologers, were honoured with the name of mathematicians. Theſe pretended prognoſticators were ſo much admired, that there was hardly a prince, or even nobleman, in Europe, who did not keep one or more of them in his family, to caſt the horoſcopes of his children, diſcover the ſucceſs of his deſigns, and the public events that were to happen. The moſt famous of theſe aſtrologers publiſhed a kind of almanacs every year, with a variety of predictions concerning the weather, and other events. We have the following quotation from one of theſe almanacks, in the works of a learned writer of thoſe times. "The aſtrologers call this year (1170) the wonderful year, from the ſingular ſituation of the planets and conſtellations, and ſay, that in the courſe of it the councils of kings will be changed, wars will be frequent, and the world will be troubled with ſeditions; that learned men will be diſcouraged; but towards the end of the year they will be exalted*." From this ſpecimen we may perceive, that their predictions were couched in very general and artful terms. But by departing from this prudent conduct, and becoming a little too plain and poſitive, they brought a temporary diſgrace on themſelves and their art. For, in the beginning of the year 1186, all the great aſtrologers in the Chriſtian world agreed in declaring, that from an extraordinary conjunction of the planets in the ſign Libra, which had never happened before, and would never happen again, there would ariſe on Tueſday, the 16th of September, at three o'clock in the morning, a moſt dreadful ſtorm, which would ſweep away not only ſingle houſes, but even great towns and cities; that this ſtorm would be followed by a deſtructive peſtilence, bloody wars, and

* John of Saliſbury.

all

all the plagues that had ever afflicted miſerable mortals. This direful prediction ſpread terror and conſternation over Europe, though it was contradicted by the Mahometan aſtrologers of Spain, who ſaid, there would only be a few ſhipwrecks, and a little failure in the vintage and harveſt.

When the awful day drew near, Baldwin, archbiſhop of Canterbury, commanded a ſolemn faſt of three days to be obſerved over all his province. But, to the utter confuſion of the poor aſtrologers, the 16th of September was uncommonly ſerene and calm, the whole ſeaſon remarkably mild and healthy, "and there were no ſtorms all that year," ſays a pleaſant writer, "but what the archbiſhop raiſed in the church by his own turbulence."

CHAP. V.

THE ARTS. A. D. 1066—1216.

THE conqueſt of England by the Normans very much contributed to the improvement of agriculture in Britain. For, by that event, many thouſands of huſbandmen, from the fertile plains of Flanders, France, and Normandy, ſettled in this iſland, obtained eſtates or farms, and employed the ſame methods in the cultivation of them, which they had uſed in their native countries.

Architecture received as great improvements as agriculture. The twelfth century, indeed, may very properly be called the age of architecture, in which the rage for building was more violent in England than at any other time. The religious of every order, enjoying peace and proſperity, diſplayed the moſt aſtoniſhing ardour in every thing that might increaſe the ſplendor of divine worſhip. The ancient edifices, which had been raiſed in the days of Edgar, and Edward the Confeſſor, were demoliſhed, and others of greater magnificence were erected.

As

As William was ſenſible, that the want of fortified places in England had greatly facilitated his conqueſt, and might facilitate his expulſion, he built ſtrong caſtles in all the towns within the royal demeſnes. All his earls, barons, and even prelates, imitated his example; and it was the firſt care of every one who received the grant of an eſtate from the crown, to build a caſtle upon it for his defence and reſidence. William Rufus was ſtill a greater builder than his father. "This prince," ſays an early writer, "was much addicted to building royal caſtles and palaces, as the caſtles of Dover, Windſor, Norwich, Exeter, the palace of Weſtminſter, and many others, teſtify; nor was there any king of England before him, who erected ſo many, and ſuch noble edifices." The author of the Saxon Chronicle informs us, that in the year 1154 when king Stephen died, *the whole kingdom was covered with caſtles.* During his turbulent reign, eleven hundred and fifteen caſtles were raiſed with ſuch expedition, that the poor people were quite worn out with hard labour.

Sculpture, under the extenſive protection of ſuperſtition, flouriſhed in the ages we now examine. The patron ſaint at leaſt adorned every church, and in all the cathedrals images abounded. Painting was much uſed by the Anglo-Normans, in the decoration of churches, and the beautiful paintings in the cathedral of Canterbury, built by archbiſhop Lanfranc, are much celebrated. In the ſpecimens of their miniature-paintings, which are ſtill extant, we perceive not only the five primary colours, but alſo various combinations of them. The accurate connoiſſeur, however, will not allow that they were acquainted with the art of painting in oil. The illumination of books was a branch of miniature-painting followed by the monks, with great ſucceſs. The materials, which theſe holy artiſts employed, were ſo durable, that their miſſals ſtill dazzle our eyes with the brightneſs of their colour, and the ſplendor of their gilding. To adorn the

bible

bible and other books, copper-plates are now uſed, inſtead of this art.

Though poetry did not flouriſh during this period, it did not fail for want of patronage. The Saxon Matilda, queen to Henry Beauclerc, was a generous patroneſs of poets. Longchamp, the favorite miniſter of Richard Cœur de Lion, kept many bards in his pay, and even allured minſtrels from France to enliven the ſtreets of London by their ſongs. The works, however, which met with ſuch encouragement from people of rank, were compoſed in the Norman, or French languages, the original Engliſh poetry being but little cultivated.

It was dangerous in thoſe times to write ſatirical verſes againſt men in power. Henry I. condemned one Luke de Barra to have his eyes pulled out, for writing defamatory ballads againſt him; and when the earl of Flanders warmly interceded for the unhappy poet, the king replied, "This man, being a wit, a poet, and a minſtrel, hath compoſed many indecent ſongs againſt me, and ſung them openly, to the great entertainment and diverſion of my enemies, he ſhall, therefore, be puniſhed, to deter others from the like petulance." This cruel ſentence was accordingly executed on the unhappy ſatiriſt, who died of the wounds he received in ſtruggling with the executioner.

CHAP. VI.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES. A. D. 1066—1216.

THE limits of this work will admit only of a brief account of the moſt eminent characters.

Ingulphus, abbot of Croyland, who was born in 1030, and died in 1091, wrote an excellent hiſtory of his own abbey, into which he has introduced much of the general hiſtory of the Kingdom, with a variety of curious anecdotes not to be found any where elſe. He was a great favourite of William the Conqueror, and obtained

obtained many privileges for his monaſtery, which he rebuilt.

Lanfranc, archbiſhop of Canterbury, who died in 1089, rebuilt the cathedral of Canterbury, and has the character of a great ſtateſman, as well as of a learned prelate.

Anſelm, the ſucceſſor of Lanfranc, died in 1109. He was the firſt archbiſhop who reſtrained the Engliſh clergy from marrying, and was canonized in the reign of Henry VII. He excelled in the application of metaphyſics to theological ſubjects, which made him to be conſidered as one of the fathers of ſcholaſtic divinity.

Eadmer, the friend and contemporary of Anſelm, and biſhop of St. Andrew's, in Scotland, wrote the hiſtory of his own time in ſix books, from 1066 to 1122. This work is highly eſteemed for its authenticity, and purity of ſtyle.

Nicholas Brekeſpere, the only Engliſhman who ever ſat in St. Peter's chair, was born near St. Alban's, and in his youth performed the meaneſt offices about the abbey of that place, in which his father was a monk. Being refuſed the habit in that monaſtery, he went to Rome, and, after many viciſſitudes of fortune, was introduced to pope Eugenius III. who was ſo pleaſed with him, that he made him a biſhop. He ſucceeded to the popedom in 1154, and took the name of Adrian; on which Henry II. of England, ſent the abbot of St. Alban's, with three biſhops, to congratulate him, when his holineſs granted him a bull for the conqueſt of Ireland. In 1155, the emperor Frederic held his ſtirrup while he mounted on horſeback, when the pope conducted him to Rome, and conſecrated him king of the Romans, in St. Peter's church. He died in 1159, leaving ſome letters and homilies, which are ſtill extant.

William of Malmſbury, a monk and librarian of that abbey, and an excellent Engliſh hiſtorian to his own time, died in 1146. Few writers have been ſo highly praiſed as this modeſt friar, whoſe humble ſentiments

of his own merit deſerve to be recorded. "I preſume not," ſays he, "to expect the applauſe of my contemporaries; but I hope, that when favour and malevolence are no more, I ſhall receive from impartial poſterity the character of an induſtrious though not an eloquent hiſtoriographer." In his hiſtory, he bears ſtrong teſtimony to the exiſtence of Engliſh wines. "This vale" (ſpeaking of the vale of Glouceſter, where he had chiefly ſpent his days) "is more abundant in vineyards than any other part of England. They produce great quantities of ſweet grapes, the wine of which is hardly inferior in flavor to that of France."

In 1148, *Geoffrey de Magnaville* was made earl of Eſſex. Being afterwards ill-treated by king Stephen, he was driven to revolt, committed many acts of violence, and died in a ſtate of excommunication. The templars, having wrapped his body in lead, *hung it on a tree* in the garden, in which ſituation it remained till he was abſolved. He lies in the temple church in London; his ſtatue is armed, and has a monk's cowl round the neck.

Geoffrey of Monmouth, biſhop of St. Aſaph, was a famous hiſtorian, in the reign of Henry I. Too much ridicule has been thrown on his hiſtory. It was not his own. The greateſt part of it was tranſlated from an Armorican manuſcript. The whole is a romance; and, in thoſe days, romance was a ſpecies of writing much honoured.

Henry of Huntingdon, a prieſt, poet, and hiſtorian, died in 1170. Mr. Warton has publiſhed a long letter of this author to a friend, on the contempt of the world, which contains many curious anecdotes of the kings, nobles, prelates, and other great men, who were his contemporaries.

William Little, better known by his Latin name Gulielmus Neubrigienſis, compoſed a hiſtory of England in five books, from the Norman conqueſt to 1197, which, for veracity, regularity of diſpoſition, and purity of language, is one of the moſt valuable productions of this period.

John

John of Salisbury, who died in 1128, was a man of such learning, that when his adherence to the turbulent Becket forced him into exile, his merit gained him the see of Chartres in France. His work "*De nugis curialium, et vestigiis philosophorum**," is the most curious and valuable monument of the English literature of the 12th century.

Giraldus Cambrensis, who died in 1198, wrote "A History of the World," in which his information respecting ecclesiastical affairs is extremely valuable. In 1172, he was put in possession of several benefices, one of which he obtained by convicting the incumbent of keeping a concubine. Being vain and conceited, he expatiates on the exquisite delight which he gave at Oxford, by publicly reading his books. He also speaks of his Latin sermons, which excited the honest Welshmen to take the cross for the recovery of Jerusalem, though they did not understand a word of the language in which he had preached. He dwells with transport on his own princely lineage, which, he avers, made Henry II. so jealous of him, as to hinder his preferment.

This æra also boasted the Anacreon of England, *Walter Mapes*, the witty archdeacon of Oxford, and chaplain to Henry II. He supported the cause of the married clergy against pope Innocent, in the following humourous verses:

"Priscian's head to break 'tis said
It is your intention;
Hic and hæc he bids us take
To the priest's declension.

One of these you harshly seize
And rob us of our treasure,
Hic alone for *hæc* must *moan*,
'Tis our pontiff's pleasure."

* Of the fopperies of courts, and the footsteps of philosophers.

CHAP. VII.

COMMERCE. A. D. 1066—1216.

THE commerce of England, which had not been contemptible even during the ravages of her various ſpoilers, began in this period to increaſe with ſome rapidity. Beſides London, whoſe opulent traders were ſtyled *barons*, York, Briſtol, Canterbury, Exeter, and many other towns, grew rich and reſpectable by their attention to trade and navigation. It is painful to relate that for ſome years after the Roman invaſion, ſlaves continued to compoſe a part of the exports from England, notwithſtanding the decree iſſued by the great council againſt this odious traffic. More laudable exports were horſes, wool, leather, cloth, corn, lead and tin. The imports were gold, precious ſtones, ſilk, tapeſtry, furs, wines and ſpices. So important did the regulation of their *wines* appear to the Anglo-Normans, that a *jury* was appointed in every city to examine the merits and ſettle the value of this enticing commodity. Spices were favourite ingredients in their meat, drink, and medicines. The Sabæans imported to London their frankincenſe and other ſpices; and from the rich country about Babylon they brought oil of palms.

Little alteration was made by the Norman invaders in the *coins* uſed by the Anglo-Saxons. In the courſe of this period, the ſilver penny is ſometimes called an eſterling or ſterling; and good money in general is ſometimes called *eſterling*, or *ſterling* money. It is unneceſſary to mention the various conjectures of antiquaries about the origin and meaning of this appellation. The moſt probable opinion ſeems to be that ſome artiſts from Germany, who were called Eſterlings, from the ſituation of their country, had been employed in fabricating our money, which conſiſted chiefly of ſilver pennies; and that from them the penny was called an eſterling, and our money *eſterling* or *ſterling* money.

CHAP.

CHAP. VIII.

MANNERS. A. D. 1066—1216.

THE very ſingular ſpirit of chivalry which began to diſplay itſelf about the beginning of this period, and was introduced into England by the Normans, gave a new turn to the education of the young nobility and gentry, in order to fit them for obtaining the honour of knighthood, which was then an object of ambition to the greateſt princes.

Thoſe noble youths, who were deſigned for the profeſſion of arms and the honours of knighthood, were early taken out of the hands of the women, and placed in the family of ſome great prince or baron.

At their firſt entrance into this ſchool of chivalry, they acted in the capacity of Pages or Valets. For thoſe names, which are now appropriated to domeſtic ſervants, were then ſometimes given to the ſons and brothers of kings. In this ſtation they were inſtructed in the laws of courteſy and politeneſs, and in the firſt rudiments of chivalry, and martial exerciſes, to fit them for ſhining in courts, at tournaments, and on the field of battle. Henry II. received this part of his education in the family of his uncle, Robert earl of Gloucester, who was one of the moſt accompliſhed knights of the age in which he flouriſhed. After they had ſpent a competent time in the ſtation of pages, they were advanced to the more honourable rank of eſquires. Then they were admitted into more familiar intercourſe with the knights and ladies of the court, and perfected in dancing, riding, hawking, hunting, tilting, and other accompliſhments neceſſary to fit them for performing the offices of knighthood, to which they aſpired. In a word the courts of kings, princes, and great barons, were a kind of colleges of chivalry, as the univerſities were of the arts and ſciences; and the youth in both advanced through ſeveral degrees to the higheſt honours.

The exercises of the youth in these schools of chivalry are thus described by a celebrated writer in the reign of Henry II. "Every Sunday in lent, immediately after divine service, crowds of noble and sprightly youths, mounted on war horses, admirably trained to perform all their turnings and evolutions, ride into the fields in distinct bands, armed with lances and shields, and exhibit representations of battles, and go through all their martial exercises. Many of the young nobility, who have not yet received the honour of knighthood, issue from the king's court, and from the houses of bishops, earls, and barons, to make trial of their courage, strength, and skill in arms. The hope of victory rouses the spirits of these noble youths; their fiery horses neigh and prance, and champ their foaming bits. At length the signal is given, and the sports begin. The youths, divided into opposite bands, encounter one another. In one place some flee, and others pursue, without being able to overtake them. In another place, one of the bands overtakes and overturns the other."

The martial sports, commonly called *tournaments*, were very favorite diversions in those ages. When a prince had resolved to hold a tournament, he sent heralds to the neighbouring courts and countries to publish his design, and to invite all brave and loyal knights to honour the intended solemnity with their presence. This invitation was accepted with the greatest joy, and a vast number of ladies and gentlemen commonly assembled. All the knights, who proposed to enter the lists, hung up their shields in the cloister of a neighbouring monastery, where they were viewed by the ladies and knights. If a lady touched one of the shields, it was considered as an accusation of its owner, who was immediately brought before the judges of the tournament, tried with great solemnity, and if found guilty of having defamed a lady, or of having done any thing unbecoming the character of a true and courteous knight, he was degraded, and expelled the assembly with every mark of infamy. The

lists

lists were surrounded with lofty towers, and scaffolds of wood, in which the princes and princesses, ladies, lords, and knights, with the judges, marshals, heralds, and minstrels, were seated in their proper places, in their richest dresses. The combatants, nobly mounted, and completely armed, were conducted into the lists by their respective mistresses, in whose honour they were to fight, with bands of martial music, amidst the acclamations of the numerous spectators. In these exercises, representations were exhibited of all the different feasts of actual war, from a single combat to a general action, with all the different kinds of arms, as spears, swords, battle-axes, and daggers. At the conclusion of every day's tournament, the judges declared the victors, and distributed the prizes, which were presented to the happy knights, by the noblest and most beautiful ladies in the assembly. The victors were then conducted in triumph to the palace; their armour was taken off by the ladies of the court; they were dressed in the richest robes, seated at the table of the sovereign, and treated with every possible mark of distinction. In a word, they became the greatest favorites of the fair, and the objects of universal admiration. The most magnificent tournament celebrated in this period, was that proclaimed by Henry II. of England, in the plains of Beaucaire, at which no fewer than 10,000 knights were present, besides ladies and other spectators. A. D. 1174.

Though the Normans were brave and generous, they were also haughty, passionate, and licentious. Their success and prosperity in England rendered them regardless of that respect and decency, with which the fair sex was commonly treated in those times, and made them rude in their behaviour to the wives and daughters of the English. This licentiousness was so great, that the princess Matilda daughter of Malcolm Canmore, king of Scotland, and afterwards queen of Henry I. being educated in England, was obliged to wear the veil of a nun, to preserve her honour from being violated by the Normans.

The Anglo-Normans had only two ſtated meals a-day, dinner and ſupper. The time of *dinner*, even at court, and in the families of the greateſt barons, was at *nine* in the morning, and the time of ſupper at *five* in the afternoon. Theſe hours were thought to be friendly to health and long life, according to the following verſes which were then often repeated.

Lever a cinq, diner a neuf,
Souper a cinq, coucher a neuf,
Fait vivre dans nonante et neuf.

To riſe at five, to dine at nine,
To ſup at five, to bed at nine,
Makes a man live to ninety-nine.

The ſumptuous entertainments, which the kings of England and of other countries, gave to their nobles and prelates, at the feſtivals of Chriſtmas, Eaſter, and Whitſuntide, contributed very much to diffuſe a taſte for profuſe and expenſive living. It was natural for a proud and wealthy baron to imitate, in his own caſtle, the entertainments he had ſeen in the palace of his prince. A celebrated writer, during this period, tells us, that he was preſent at an entertainment, which laſted from three o'clock in the afternoon to midnight, at which delicacies were ſerved up, which had been brought from Conſtantinople, Babylon, Alexandria, Paleſtine, Syria, and Phœnicia*. Theſe delicacies, we may preſume, were very expenſive; for Thomas à Becket gave five pounds, equivalent to ſeventy-five pounds at preſent, for one diſh of eels. Great men had ſome kinds of proviſions at their tables, which are not now to be found in Britain. When Henry II. entertained his own court, the great officers of his army, with all the kings and great men of Ireland, in Dublin, at the feſtival of Chriſtmas, the Iriſh princes and chieftains were quite

A. D. 1171.

* John of Salisbury.

aſtoniſhed

aſtoniſhed at the variety of proviſions which they beheld, and were not eaſily prevailed upon to eat the fleſh of cranes, a kind of food to which they had not been accuſtomed. In the remaining monuments of thoſe ages, we meet with the names of ſeveral diſhes, as dellegrout, maupigyrnun, and karumpie, the compoſition of which is now unknown.

CHAP. IX.

INCIDENTS, AND CURIOUS PARTICULARS. A. D. 1066—1216.

IN 1068, the Engliſh were required to put out their fires and candles, at eight in the evening, on the ringing of the curfew bell. They were alſo obliged to deliver up their arms.

In 1091, a ſtorm at South Weſt blew down 600 houſes, and many churches in London. Beams from the roof of Marybone church were whirled away by the wind with ſuch force, that they ſunk down twenty feet in the ſtreet. They could not be dug out, but were ſawed off even with the ground. In the ſame year Ingulphus, abbot of Croyland, laments the deſtruction of his monaſtery by fire, and particularly the loſs of a precious aſtronomical inſtrument, which he calls a *Nadir*. "It was a beautiful table," ſays he, "wherein Saturn was of copper, Jupiter of gold, Mars of iron, and the Sun of ſilver. The eyes were charmed, and the mind inſtructed by beholding the colure, circles, the Zodiac, and all its ſigns, formed with wonderful art, of metals and precious ſtones." Was not this an imperfect orrery?

In 1092, a dreadful conflagration deſtroyed the greateſt part of London.

In 1100, an inundation of the ſea happened, which overflowed the lands of Godwin, earl of Kent, to this day called *Godwin Sands*. Of theſe ſhoals, the late Mr. Smeaton, civil engineer, gives the following account.

BOOK IV.

CHAP. I.

MILITARY HISTORY FROM THE DEATH OF KING JOHN, IN 1216, TO THE ACCESSION OF HENRY IV. IN 1399.

ENGLAND was in a deplorable ſituation when the crown devolved upon Henry III. who was only nine years old. The earl of Pembroke being choſen his guardian, the French were driven out of the kingdom, and their king renounced all claims to Engliſh territory. Henry, having married the daughter of the earl of Provence, was perſuaded to violate the Great Charter. An aſſociation of the barons was immediately formed againſt him, and a civil war broke out, when he was abandoned by all but his Gaſcons and foreign mercenaries. The famous Stephen Montfort, earl of Leiceſter, who had married his ſiſter, being appointed general of the aſſociation, the king and his two ſons were defeated and taken priſoners, at the battle of Lewes. Prince Edward, however, obtained his liberty, and aſſembling a conſiderable number of his father's ſubjects, put the rebels to flight, and killed Montfort. Henry died in 1272, in the 65th year of his age, and the 56th of his inglorious reign. But to the ſtruggles at that time, the people, in great meaſure, owe the liberties of the preſent day.

Edward I. began his reign by confirming the Great charter, and making ſtrict enquiry into the affairs of the ſtate. He annexed the principality of Wales to his crown, and was the firſt who gave the title of prince of Wales to his eldeſt ſon. He then invaded Scotland,

land, when John Baliol, the king, renewed his oath of fidelity, and put him in poſſeſſion of the whole kingdom. But while Edward was endeavouring to recover ſome dominions which he had loſt in France, the brave William Wallace roſe up in defence of his country, and, having diſpoſſeſſed the Engliſh of all the fortified places, was declared regent. Upon this Edward returned from France, advanced into Scotland at the head of a powerful army, and defeated Wallace, who, ſeveral years afterwards, was betrayed into the hands of the Engliſh, and ſent to London; where that great hero ſuffered the death of a traitor. Edward died in 1307, in the 68th year of his age, and the 35th of his reign, having ordered his heart to be ſent to the Holy Land.

His ſon Edward II. who married Iſabella, daughter to the French king, mounted the throne with great advantages, which he ſoon forfeited by his own imprudence. The battle of Bannockburn between him and Robert Bruce, eſtabliſhed the latter on the throne of Scotland. A. D. 1314. He raiſed to the ſummit of power, the two Spencers, father and ſon, whom the parliament baniſhed. The queen, an ambitious and worthleſs woman, who perſuaded her huſband to recal the Spencers, at laſt became enamoured with Mortimer, earl of March. A breach between her and the Spencers ſoon followed, and, going over to France with her lover, ſhe found means to form ſuch a party in England, that, on her return with ſome French troops, ſhe put the eldeſt Spencer to an ignominious death, made her huſband priſoner, and forced him to abdicate his crown in favour of his ſon Edward III. then fifteen years of age. Nothing was now wanting to complete her guilt but the death of Edward II. who was barbarouſly murdered in Berkley-caſtle by ruffians, ſuppoſed to be employed by her and her paramour. A. D. 1327.

During the minority of Edward III. little domeſtic tranquillity was to be expected. When he aſſumed the reins of government, Mortimer was hanged at

Tyburn, and the queen herself was confined for life. It was not long before he quarrelled with David, king of Scotland, though he had married his sister. David was driven to France by Edward Baliol, who did homage to Edward for Scotland.

In 1337, Charles the Fair, king of France, dying without male issue, Philip of Valois, his cousin, in consequence of the Salic law, which is supposed to exclude females, succeeded to the throne. He was opposed, however, by Edward, as being the son of Isabella, sister to the deceased king, and first in the female succession. The former was preferred; but the case being doubtful, Edward pursued his claim, and invaded France with a powerful army. The war, on the part of Edward, was a continued scene of success and victory. In 1340, he took the title of king of France, which he used in all public acts, and quarted the arms of France with his own, adding this motto, *Dieu et mon droit*, "God and my right."

At Cressy, in 1346, the French army, consisting of one hundred and twenty thousand men, was defeated by 30,000 English, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales, commonly called the *Black Prince* from the colour of his armour. Forty thousand of the French were slain, among whom were many of the principal nobility, twelve hundred knights, and fourteen hundred gentlemen; while the English lost only three knights, one esquire, and fifty private men. On his return to the camp, Edward flew into the arms of the prince of Wales, who had distinguished himself in a remarkable manner. "My brave son!" cried he, "persevere in your honourable course. You are my son! for valiantly have you acquitted yourself to day. You have shewn yourself worthy of empire."

A weak mind is elated with the smallest success; a great spirit is little affected by any turn of fortune. Edward, instead of expecting that the victory at Cressy would be immediately followed by the total subjection of the disputed kingdom, seemed rather to moderate his views. He prudently limited his ambition to the conquest

conqueſt of Calais, by which he hoped to ſecure an eaſy entrance into France.

The battle of Poictiers was fought in 1356, between the prince of Wales and John of France, in which the French were totally defeated, and their king taken priſoner. The captive king, after having received the moſt courteous and generous treatment from his conqueror, was conducted by him to England, when he entered London, dreſſed in royal apparel, and mounted on a beautiful ſteed, whilſt the prince, clad in meaner attire, with a humility that did him honour, rode by his ſide on a black palfrey.

Edward, having left his queen Philippa, daughter to the earl of Hainault, regent of England, ſhe had the good fortune to take priſoner, David, king of Scotland, who had invaded England, about ſix weeks after the battle of Creſſy. Thus two crowned heads were captives in London at the ſame time. Both kings were afterwards ranſomed; but John returned to England, and died at the palace of the Savoy. After the battle of Bretigni, into which Edward was frightened by a dreadful ſtorm, his popularity declined. This was chiefly occaſioned by his extravagant attachment to Alice Pierce, a young lady of wit and beauty, whoſe influence over him had given ſuch general diſguſt, as to become the object of a parliamentary remonſtrance. Meanwhile the prince of Wales died, leaving behind him a character adorned with every eminent virtue, and which would throw luſtre on the moſt ſhining period of ancient or modern hiſtory. The king did not long ſurvive this melancholy incident. He died at Richmond in Surry, in the ſixty-fifth year of his age, and the fifty firſt of his reign; one of the longeſt and moſt glorious in the Engliſh annals. His latter days were indeed ſomewhat obſcured, by the infirmities and follies of old age; but he was no ſooner dead, than the people of England were ſenſible of their irreparable loſs, and poſterity conſiders him as the greateſt and moſt accompliſhed prince of his time. A. D. 1377.

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The domestic government of Edward was even more worthy of admiration than his foreign victories. By the prudence and vigour of his administration, England enjoyed a longer term of interior peace and tranquillity than it had been blest with in any former period, or than it experienced for many ages after. He gained the affections of the great, yet curbed their licentiousness. His affable and obliging behaviour, his munificence and generosity, made them successful in most military enterprises; and their unquiet spirits, directed against a public enemy, had no leisure to breed those private feuds, to which they were naturally so much disposed. This internal tranquillity was the chief benefit that England derived from Edward's continental expedition; and the miseries of the reign of his successor made the nation fully sensible of the value of the blessing. Edward had a numerous issue by his queen, Philippa, of Hainault; viz. Edward, prince of Wales, Lionel, duke of Clarence, John of Gaunt, so called from the place of his birth, created duke of Lancaster; Edmund, earl of Cambridge, afterwards duke of York; Thomas, earl of Buckingham, afterwards duke of Gloucester; and several princesses.

Richard II. son of the Black Prince, succeeded to the throne of his grandfather, at the age of eleven years. Though a council of nine persons was chosen to direct the public business, during the king's minority, the government of the kingdom was secretly directed by his three uncles, the dukes of Lancaster, York, and Gloucester; especially by the former, who was in reality the regent.

War had been carried on between France and England, after the death of Edward the III. but in so languid a manner as served only to exhaust the finances of both kingdoms. In order to repair the expences of these fruitless armaments, the English parliament found it necessary to impose a poll-tax of three groats a-head, on every person, male and female, above fifteen years of age. The inequality and injustice of this tax was obvious to the meanest capacity, while the

rigorous

rigorous manner in which it was levied, made it yet more grievous. The diſcontents of the populace being thus prepared, the following incident kindled them into a flame. The tax-gatherers came to a blackſmith's ſhop, in the village of Eſſex, and demanded payment for his daughter, whom he aſſerted to be below the age aſſigned by the ſtatute. One of the fellows, laying hold of the maiden, and offering to produce a very indecent proof of the contrary, the father knocked out the ruffian's brains with his hammer. The by-ſtanders applauded the action, and exclaiming that it was full time for the people to take vengeance on their tyrants, immediately flew to arms. The flame in an inſtant ſpread over that and the neighbouring counties, and the populace, headed by the moſt audacious and criminal of their aſſociates, who aſſumed the feigned names of Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, and Hob Carter, committed the moſt outrageous violence on ſuch of the nobility and gentry as fell into their hands.

At length, near an hundred thouſand of them aſſembled on blackheath under their leaders, Tyler and Straw; from whence they made their way to London, where they continued their outrages. The king, paſſing along Smithfield, very ſlenderly guarded, met with Wat Tyler at the head of a large body of the rioters, and entered into a conference with him. Tyler, having ordered his companions to retire till he ſhould give them the ſignal, ventured into the midſt of the royal retinue; where he behaved himſelf in ſuch a manner, that Walworth, the mayor of London, not able to bear his inſolence, ſtruck him a violent blow, which brought him to the ground, and he was inſtantly diſpatched by the reſt of the king's attendants. The mutineers, ſeeing their leader fall, prepared themſelves for revenge; and the king, with his whole company, had undoubtedly periſhed on the ſpot, had it not been for an extraordinary preſence of mind which Richard diſcovered on this occaſion. Accoſting the enraged multitude, with an affable and intrepid

)id countenance, he aſked them, what was the
aning of their diſorder? "Are you angry, my
d people," added he, "that you have loſt your
ler? I, your king, will be your leader." The
ulace, overawed by his preſence, implicitly fol-
ed him into the fields, and a body of well armed
:rans having been ſecretly drawn together, they
ceably ſeparated, upon his granting them a charter
redreſs for their grievances, which, however, was
n after diſanulled in parliament.

Had Richard been a prince of real abilities, he
ght now have eſtabliſhed the tranquillity of his do-
nions on a ſure foundation; but he delivered him-
up to worthleſs favorites, particularly Robert de
re, earl of Oxford, a young man of noble family,
of diſſolute manners, whom he created marquis
Dublin, and duke of Ireland. This ſoon pro-
:ed an animoſity between the minion and his crea-
es on the one hand, and the princes of the blood
l chief nobility on the other, and brought on a con-
ual ſcene of diſſenſion between the king and his
)ple, which ended in the exile of the earl. Michael
la Pole, the ſon of an eminent merchant, whom he
ated earl of Suffolk, and appointed his chancellor,
l likewiſe acquired, in an eminent degree, the
:ndſhip of Richard.

The duke of Glouceſter perceiving the miſchiefs
ich the diſſolute conduct of his nephew might oc-
ion, formed a party againſt him, when Richard or-
ed the duke to be ſeized and conveyed to Calais,
ere he was privately ſtrangled.

He was now upon the point of becoming more
potic, than any king of England had ever been,
en he loſt his crown and life by a ſudden cataſtrophe.
quarrel happened between the earl of Derby, ſon of
n of Gaunt, lately created duke of Hereford, and
duke of Norfolk. Richard baniſhed them both,
h particular marks of injuſtice to the former, who
n became duke of Lancaſter, by his father's death.
e king going over to quell an inſurrection in Ire-
land,

land, the wiſhes of the nation were gratified by the appearance of his exiled couſin, who landed from France at Ravenſpur, in Yorkſhire, and was ſoon at the head of 60,000 men. Richard hurried back to England, where his troops refuſing to fight, and his ſubjects, whom he had affected to deſpiſe, generally deſerting him, he was made priſoner with no more than twenty attendants. Being conducted to London, he was depoſed in full parliament, upon a formal charge of tyranny and miſconduct, when the duke of Lancaſter was proclaimed king, under the name of Henry IV. With regard to Richard, it was long the prevailing opinion, that Sir Piers Exton, and others of his guards, fell upon him in the caſtle of Pomfret, where he was confined, and diſpatched him with halberts. But it is more probable that he was ſtarved to death in priſon, in the 34th year of his age, and the 23d of his reign, having no iſſue by either of his marriages. A. D. 1399.

This prince lived in a more magnificent manner than, perhaps, any of his predeceſſors or ſucceſſors. His houſehold conſiſted of 10,000 perſons. He had 300 in his kitchen, and all the other offices were furniſhed in proportion.

CHAP. II.

RELIGION AND ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS.

A. D. 1216—1399.

AS the power of the pope, and of the church, appears to have been at its greateſt height in England, during this period, it may not be improper to take a ſhort view of this prodigious fabric of eccleſiaſtical tyranny, and of the deplorable oppreſſions under which our anceſtors groaned in this ſuperſtitious age. Some of thoſe oppreſſions are well expreſſed in a letter of complaint written to the pope by the king, prelates, and barons of England, in 1246. In that letter they complain,

complain, that the pope, not content with the annual payment of Peter-pence, exacted from the clergy great contributions, without the king's conſent, and againſt the cuſtoms, rights, and liberties of the realm of England; that the patrons of churches could not preſent fit perſons to the vacant livings, as the pope generally conferred them on Italians, who underſtood not the Engliſh language, and carried out of the kingdom the money ariſing from their benefices; that the pope oppreſſed the churches, by exacting penſions from them; that in churches filled by Italians, there were neither alms nor hoſpitality; and that the care of ſouls was entirely neglected. To theſe were added many other grievances no leſs oppreſſive and intolerable. His holineſs filled the higheſt dignities of the church by his own power, making the archbiſhops and others pay exorbitant ſums for their preferments. He brought all cauſes of any importance to Rome, and kept the parties long waiting for their deciſion, at great expence. Great ſums were annually ſent to Rome, for pardons, indulgences, and diſpenſations. It is therefore ſurpriſing, that the kingdom was not drained of all its wealth.

The inſatiable avarice, and inſupportable tyranny of the court of Rome, gave ſuch univerſal diſguſt, in the 14th Century, that a bold attack made on the authority of that court, and the doctrines of that church, was, at firſt, more ſucceſsful than could have been expected in thoſe dark ages. Dr. John Wickliffe, a ſecular prieſt, educated at Oxford, began in the latter end of the reign of Edward III. to ſpread the doctrines of reformation by his diſcourſes, ſermons and writings, when many people of all ranks became his diſciples. He was a man of parts, learning and piety; and has the honour of being the firſt perſon in Europe, who publickly called in queſtion thoſe doctrines, which had paſſed for certain during ſo many ages. The doctrines of Wickliffe, being nearly the ſame with thoſe propagated by the reformers in the 16th century, gave great alarm to the clergy, and a bull was iſſued by the

pope

pope for taking him into cuſtody, and examining into the ſcope of his opinions. Courteney biſhop of London cited him before his tribunal; but the reformer had now acquired powerful protectors, who ſcreened him from the eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction. The duke of Lancaſter, who then governed the kingdom, and lord Percy, the mareſchal, having encouraged the principles of Wickliffe, made no ſcruple to appear openly in court with him, in order to give him countenance upon his trial. They even inſiſted that Wickliffe ſhould ſit in the biſhop's preſence, while his principles were examined. Courteney exclaimed againſt the inſult. The Londoners, thinking their prelate affronted, attacked the duke and mareſchal, who with ſome difficulty eſcaped from their hands. The populace, ſoon after, broke into the houſes of both theſe noblemen, threatened their perſons, and plundered their goods, while the biſhop of London had the merit of appeaſing their fury and reſentment.

The duke of Lancaſter, however, ſtill continued his protection to Wickliffe, during the minority of Richard, and the principles of that reformer were ſo much propagated, that, when the pope ſent to Oxford a new bull againſt theſe doctrines, the univerſity deliberated for ſome time whether they ſhould receive it; and they never took any vigorous meaſures in conſequence of the papal orders. Even the populace of London were, at laſt, brought to entertain favorable ſentiments of this reformer. When he was cited before a ſynod at Lambeth, they forced their way into the aſſembly, and ſo overawed the prelates, who found both the people and the court againſt them, that they diſmiſſed him without any farther cenſure.

Wickliffe died of a palſy, at his rectory of Lutterworth, in Leiceſterſhire, when the clergy, mortified that he ſhould have eſcaped their vengeance, took care, beſides aſſuring the people of his eternal damnation, to repreſent his laſt diſtemper as a viſible judgment of heaven upon him, for his multiplied hereſies and impieties. A. D. 1385.

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The proſelytes, however, of Wickliffe's opinions ſtill increaſed in England, and were diſtinguiſhed by the name of Wickliffites or Lollards. His principles were carried over to Bohemia by ſome youth of that nation, who ſtudied at Oxford. But though many were ſtrongly diſpoſed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution, wiſely reſerved for a more free and enquiring age, which aboliſhed Romiſh ſuperſtition in this and many other kingdoms of Europe.

CHAP. III.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. A. D. 1216—1399.

UNDER the long reign of Henry the third, the difference which aroſe between the king and the nobles, rendered England a ſcene of confuſion. The people, however, obtained a confirmation of the great charter with the addition of new privileges. But the liberty of the ſubject made the greateſt progreſs during the reign of Edward the firſt; a prince, who, from his numerous and prudent laws, has been denominated the Engliſh Juſtinian. During the firſt thirteen years of this prince's reign, the Engliſh laws received more improvement than in all the ages ſince his time. But what renders this æra particularly intereſting is, that it affords the firſt inſtance of the admiſſion of the deputies of towns and boroughs into parliament. In order to raiſe ſubſidies to ſupport the wars in which he was engaged, he found himſelf obliged to employ a new method, and to endeavour to obtain, by the conſent of the people, what his predeceſſors had hitherto expected from their own power. The ſheriffs were ordered to invite the towns and boroughs of the different counties to ſend deputies to parliament; and it is from this æra that we are to date the origin of the houſe of commons. King Edward confirmed the great charter eleven times in the courſe of his reign. And,

at

at length, he converted into an eſtabliſhed law, a privilege of which the Engliſh had hitherto only a precarious enjoyment, by decreeing that no tax ſhould be laid, nor impoſt levied, without the joint conſent of the lords and commons. This moſt important ſtatute, in conjunction with Magna Charta, forms the baſis of the Engliſh conſtitution. Under Edward the ſecond, the commons began to annex petitions to the bills by which they granted ſubſidies. This was the dawn of their legiſlative authority. Under Edward the third, they declared they would not, in future, acknowledge any law to which they had not expreſsly aſſented. Soon after this, they exerted a privilege in which conſiſts, at this time, one of the great balances of the conſtitution; they impeached, and procured to be condemned, ſome of the chief miniſters of ſtate.

During the whole of this period, however, the government, was at beſt only a barbarous monarchy, not regulated by any fixed maxims, or bounded by any certain undiſputed rights, which in practice were regularly obſerved. The king conducted himſelf by one ſet of principles, the barons by another, the commons by a third, and the clergy by a fourth. All theſe ſyſtems of government were oppoſite and incompatible. Each of them prevailed in its turn, as incidents were favourable to it. A great prince rendered the monarchical power predominant. The weakneſs of a king gave reins to the ariſtocracy. A ſuperſtitious age ſaw the clergy triumphant. The people, for whom chiefly *government* was inſtituted, and who chiefly *deſerve conſideration*, were the weakeſt of the whole. But though they ſunk under the violence of tempeſts, they ſilently reared their head in more peaceable times; and while the ſtorm was brewing, were courted by all ſides, and thus received ſtill ſome acceſſion to their privileges, or at worſt ſome confirmation of them.

CHAP.

CHAP. IV.

LITERATURE. A. D. 1216—1399.

THE ſupreme authority which Ariſtotle obtained in the ſchools of theology, as well as of philoſophy, during this period, had a conſiderable influence both on learning and religion. The name and ſome parts of the writings of Ariſtotle were known in England, and other countries of Europe, long before this time. But he did not obtain that dictatorial authority among learned men, and in the moſt famous ſeats of learning, which he ſo long maintained, till the middle of the 13th century. About that time he began to be called *the philoſopher*, by way of eminence. "He is preferred," ſays Roger Bacon, "before all other philoſophers, in the opinion of all men of learning; whatever he has affirmed is received by them as true and ſound philoſophy; and, in a word, he has the ſame authority in philoſophy that the apoſtle Paul has in divinity." To ſuch an extravagant height was this veneration for Ariſtotle carried, before the middle of the 14th century, in ſome of the moſt famous univerſities, particularly in that of Paris, that ſtudents were obliged to take a *ſolemn oath* to defend his opinions. This blind ſubmiſſion could not but obſtruct the progreſs of real knowledge, as very few of his admirers were capable of reading his works in their original language, but became acquainted with them only in falſe tranſlations.

Divinity now ſoared above the ſcriptures. The ſchoolmen valued themſelves on making improvements in theology, without recourſe to either Teſtament; and thoſe unfaſhionable ſages, who ſtill ſtudied the ſacred writings, were ſtyled in deriſion *Bible-doctors*. They were conſidered as men of little penetration or acuteneſs, had but few ſcholars, and were not allowed an apartment, nor a ſervant to attend them, nor even a ſtated hour for reading their lectures, in any of the famous univerſities of Europe.

Aſtro-

Aſtronomy and optics were known to the illuſtrious Roger Bacon, but to few others. The ſame great man ſeems alſo to have monopolized the knowledge of mechanics and chemiſtry.

We may judge of the ignorance of this age in geography, from the following ſtory. Pope Clement IV. having, in 1344, created Lewis of Spain, prince of the *Fortunate Iſlands*, meaning the Canaries, then newly diſcovered, the Engliſh ambaſſador at Rome, and his retinue, were ſeized with an alarm that Lewis had been created king of England. They accordingly hurried home, in order to convey this important intelligence.

Such, however, was the ardour for ſtudy at this time, that in the univerſity of Oxford alone there were thirty thouſand ſtudents. What then was the occupation of all theſe young men? To learn bad Latin, and worſe logic. They diſputed without end, and without meaning, perplexing the plaineſt truths, and giving plauſible colours to the greateſt abſurdities. A logical diſputant of this period was not aſhamed to argue, with as much earneſtneſs as if his life depended on the iſſue of the debate, "*that two contradictory propoſitions might each be true.*" Theſe frivolous diſputes were conducted with ſo much eagerneſs, that from angry words the diſputants ſometimes proceeded to blows, and raiſed dangerous tumults in the ſeats of learning.

CHAP. V.

THE ARTS. A. D. 1216—1399.

IN the period we are now examining, very little progreſs was made in agriculture. The country was almoſt conſtantly involved in war, which diverted the attention of the people, and particularly of the nobility, from the improvement of their lands. The wretched tenure, likewiſe, by which the inferior farmers

hold their poſſeſſions, was an effectual bar to every amendment of ſoil. Gardening, under the immediate protection of the great, had better ſucceſs. Every large caſtle or monaſtery had its garden, orchard, and frequently its vineyard; ſo that the Engliſh had a conſiderable quantity of wine, of their own manufacture, not much inferior to foreign wine.

With regard to architecture, many of the moſt admired cathedrals in England, viz. thoſe of York, Saliſbury, and Wincheſter, owe their exiſtence to this period, which is generally allowed to have produced the trueſt and faireſt models of what is called the "*lighter gothic ſtyle of building.*" The ſteeples with ſpires and pinnacles, the pillars formed of an aſſemblage of columns; the lofty windows ſometimes towering to a point, ſometimes much enlarged, divided into ſeveral lights by ſtone mullions, and always filled with glaſs ſtained with lively colours, to repreſent the ſtories of ſaints and martyrs, theſe beautiful peculiarities ſtamp the ſacred edifices of the 13th and 14th centuries.

This rapid progreſs in architectural elegance was greatly aſſiſted by a band of ingenious workmen of various countries, who forming themſelves into ſocieties, under the title of "*Free Maſons*," offered their ſervices to opulent princes, and were much attached to the bountiful Henry, and to his magnanimous ſucceſſor.

The ardour of our Engliſh reformers, and the party zeal of civil wars, have left us few perfect memorials of the ſtate of ſculpture, in the early ſtages. Father Montfaucon ſays, that the art was greatly improved during the 13th century, and Matthew Paris mentions a monk, his contemporary, as an admirable ſtatuary.

So great and general was the taſte for paintings in this period, that not only the apartments of the great, but thoſe of private perſons, were ornamented with hiſtorical pictures. When Chaucer awoke from his celebrated poetical dream, the gay objects, which his fancy had preſented, were vaniſhed, and he ſaw nothing,

Save

" Save on the wal's old pourtrayture
" Of horſmen, hauks, and houndis
" And hart dire, al ful of woundis."

This, we may believe, is a real deſcription of his own bed-chamber.

Though the poets of this period were as much admired by their contemporaries, as thoſe who flouriſhed in better times, their works are now generally neglected. This is, perhaps, as much owing to the antiquated ſtyle in which they wrote, and the ſubjects of which they treated, as to the mediocrity of their talents. The Engliſh language, though nervous, was then harſh, frowned on by the court, deſpiſed by the gentry, and diſguiſed by an unintelligible mode of ſpelling.

Several other muſical inſtruments, beſides the *harp*, were now uſed by the minſtrels. In the band of Edward III. we find five trumpeters, a cyteler, five pipers, a fidler, a tabret, a mabrer, two clarions, and three hautboys.

CHAP. VI.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES. A. D. 1216—1399.

MATTHEW Paris, a benedictine monk in the monaſtery of St. Alban's, who flouriſhed in the 13th century, was an excellent poet, orator, and hiſtorian. He lived on a very friendly and familiar footing with Henry III. being not only employed in his ſervice, but entruſted with his ſecrets, and invited to his table. He is chiefly known at this time, by an univerſal hiſtory from the creation of the world to the year of his death, in 1259.

Roger Bacon, a learned monk of the Franciſcan order, was deſcended of an ancient family, and born near Ilcheſter, in Somerſetſhire, in 1214. He applied himſelf with aſtoniſhing ardour to the acquiſition of knowledge, both at Oxford and Paris; and his attainments were ſo uncommon, that the populace looked upon

him as a magician. By the contrivance of his own fraternity, who were jealous of his superior abilities, he was prohibited from reading lectures to the students, and afterwards imprisoned. His fame, however, reached the ears of pope Clement IV. who requested he would send him a copy of his works. This collection is now extant under the title of "*Opus Majus*," or his Great Work. After remaining in prison for ten years, he obtained his liberty and returned to Oxford, where he died, in 1294.

This wonderful man had a profound knowledge of the mathematics and natural philosophy. He discovered the error in the calendar, and his plan for correcting it was adopted by Gregory XIII. He gave such a description of the composition of gunpowder, that it is evident he was the original inventor of it. His acquaintance with chemistry was extensive. He also described the camera obscura, and those kinds of glasses which magnify or lessen objects. In short the character which Dr. Freind gives of him is not too great, "that he was the miracle of the age in which he lived, and the greatest genius, perhaps, for mechanical knowledge, that ever appeared in the world since Archimedes." His Opus Majus was published by doctor Jebb, and printed in one volume, folio, in 1733.

Matthew of Westminster, a monk and historian of the 14th century, was remarkable for his strict attention to veracity. His *Flores Historiarum*, or Flowers of History, from the creation, to 1307, were published at London in 1567, and at Frankfort in 1601.

John de Fordun, a Scottish historian, who died in 1308, wrote the history of his native country under the title of "*Scoti-Chronicon*."

John Duns Scotus, of Northumberland, a celebrated theologian of the Franciscan order, distinguished himself so much by the acuteness of his parts, and especially by his manner of disputing, that he acquired the name of the "Subtile Doctor." Several thousand persons attended his lectures at Oxford. "He described the Supreme Being," says one of his disciples,

"as

" as if he had ſeen God, the attributes of celeſtial ſpirits, as if he had been an angel, and the felicities of a future ſtate, as if he had enjoyed them." He died in 1308, and his works were publiſhed in 1639, in ten volumes folio.

Anthony Beak, biſhop of Durham, who died in 1310, merits notice for the ſingularity of his character. He led the van of the firſt Edward's army againſt the Scots, and dared even to make a harſh retort to a reproof from that ſtern monarch. At Rome, he oppoſed alone a number of ruffians, who had forcibly entered his houſe. So active was his mind, that he always roſe immediately after his firſt ſleep; ſaying, "*that it was beneath a man to turn himſelf in bed.*" He was ſo modeſt, that though he ſmiled at the frown of a king, he never could lift his eyes to the face of a *woman*; and when the remains of St. William were to be removed from York, he was the only prelate whoſe *conſcious chaſtity* permitted him to touch the ſacred bones. Yet could this mirror of purity defraud the natural ſon of his friend, lord Veſey, of a large eſtate, which had been intruſted to the biſhop's honour. As he loved military parade, he had knights and ſoldiers always about him. Vanity prompted him to ſpend immenſe ſums. He once gave 40l. ſterling for forty freſh herrings, and he ordered to be cut out into horſe-cloths, a piece of cloth, which had been proverbially ſaid to be "*too dear for the biſhop of Durham.*"

Sir John Mandeville, celebrated for his diſtant travels and credulity, was born at St. Alban's, and died in 1372. He began his peregrinations in 1322, and continued them during 34 years through the greateſt part of the world. He acquired the knowledge of almoſt all languages, and left at his death, an "Itinerary," or account of his travels, in Engliſh, French, and Latin.

John Barbour, an eminent Scottiſh divine and poet, was born at Aberdeen in 1330, and educated in the abbey of Aberbrothick. King David Bruce made him his chaplain, and ſent him on ſeveral embaſſies. He

loved learning ſo much, that even after he was archdeacon of Aberdeen, he obtained a licence from Edward III. to ſtudy at Oxford. He wrote the life and exploits of Robert Bruce in rhyme, and in language more like our modern Engliſh than that of Chaucer. He died in 1378. The following ſtanza will give ſome idea of his ſtyle and poetical talents.

" This was in midſt of month of May,
" When birdis ſing on ilka ſpray
" Melland * their notes with ſeemly ſoun
" For ſoftneſs of the ſweet ſeaſoun."

About this time, *John Brompton*, abbot of Jorvall, in Yorkſhire, wrote his hiſtory of England. His collection of the Saxon laws is valuable. He was wonderfully credulous, but not the leſs entertaining, and frequently makes his readers ſmile at the wild tales which he relates, with apparent ſimplicity, as ſolemn truths.

Geoffrey Chaucer, the father of Engliſh poetry, was born in London in 1328, and educated at both univerſities. After viſiting ſeveral foreign countries for his improvement, he became a ſtudent of law in the Middle Temple. But this ſtudy not being agreeable to his taſte, he reſolved to try his fortune at court, for which he was well qualified, being remarkably handſome in his perſon, elegant in his manners, an univerſal ſcholar, and an admired poet. He accordingly obtained the honourable place of page to Edward III. in 1359, when that illuſtrious prince was in the ſummit of his proſperity, and the Engliſh court in its higheſt ſplendor, adorned by the captive kings of France and Scotland. In this ſtation he rendered himſelf ſo agreeable to his royal maſter, that he obtained many ſubſtantial marks of his favour, and enjoyed an income of no leſs than 1000l. a year, equivalent to 12000l. at preſent. In this flouriſhing ſtate of his affairs, he married Philippa Rouet, ſiſter to lady Swynton, afterwards the wife of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, the king's third ſon. This nobleman having eſpouſed the cauſe of

* Mingling.

Wickliffe

Wickliffe from political views, Chaucer engaged with warmth, and from principle, in the ſame cauſe. In order to avoid the reſentment of the clergy, he was obliged to go abroad, where he ſpent his whole eſtate in ſupporting himſelf and his fellow-exiles. He then returned privately into England, but was taken and committed to priſon, from whence he was not releaſed, till he had diſcloſed the ſecrets of his party. On this he retired to Woodſtock, where he corrected his works. Here he publiſhed his admirable Treatiſe on the Aſtrolabe. By the exertions of his friends, who recovered their influence at court, he obtained ſeveral grants from the crown, which enabled him to ſpend the laſt years of his life in eaſe and plenty. He died in 1400, and was buried in Weſtminſter Abbey, leaving two ſons, one of whom was ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, and ambaſſador to France. Of his poems, the Canterbury Tales are by far the beſt. There have been ſeveral editions of his works.

Sir John Gower, an eminent lawyer and poet, the contemporary and intimate friend of Chaucer, whom he ſucceeded in the laurel, was deſcended from an ancient family, and born in 1320. In his character as a lawyer he made ſo conſiderable a figure, that he was appointed chief juſtice of the Common Pleas. His principal production as a poet is *Confeſſio Amantis*, firſt printed by Caxton. He appears to have been fond of writing, and laments in a very pathetic ſtrain, that by the failure of his ſight, he was conſtrained to lay aſide his pen. He died in 1402. Some of his ſhort poems are inſerted in the works of Chaucer.

CHAP. VII.

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE, AND INTERNAL POLICE. A. D. 1216—1399.

THE chief manufacture of England, in the æra of which we now treat, was that of wool. This she owed to the fostering hand of Edward III. who gave encouragement to foreign weavers, and enacted a law, which prohibited every one from wearing any cloth but of English fabric. The manufactures of leather and lead were also very considerable.

The greatest part of our domestic trade was still transacted in fairs, of which some were of long duration, frequented by a great number of people from different countries, and stored with commodities of all kinds. The fair of St. Giles's hill, near Winchester, continued sixteen days, during which time all trade was prohibited in Winchester, Southampton, and every place within seven miles of the fair, which very much resembled a great city, inhabited by foreign and domestic traders, who exposed their various commodities to sale. We are assured by a contemporary writer of undoubted credit, that male and female slaves were publicly sold in the fairs of England, near the conclusion of the 14th century.

In the beginning of the reign of Richard II. the parliament complained of the decay of foreign commerce, during the preceding reign, and asserted, that one sea-port formerly contained more vessels than were then to be found in the whole kingdom. This calamity they ascribed to the arbitrary seizure of ships by Edward, for the service of his frequent expeditions.

With regard to coin, the third Edward, in 1344, struck florins of gold, which were ordered to pass for six shillings, and the halves and quarters in proportion. Finding, however, that he had rated these pieces too

high,

high, he coined the gold noble of 6s. 8d., and recalled the florins to his treasury.

The police of the kingdom was certainly much improved during this period, particularly in the renowned Edward's time. Yet there were several faults in the constitution, the bad consequences of which, all the power and vigilance of the king could never prevent. The barons, by their confederacies with those of their own order, and by supporting their retainers in every iniquity, were the chief abettors of robbers, murderers, and ruffians of all kinds; and no law could be executed against those criminals. The nobility were brought to give their promise in parliament, that they would not countenance any felon or breaker of the law; yet this engagement, which we may wonder to see exacted from men of their rank, was never regarded by them. The commons made continual complaints of the multitude of robberies, murders, rapes, and other disorders, in every part of the kingdom, which they always ascribed to the protection that the criminals received from the great. The king of Cyprus, who paid a visit to England in the reign of Edward III. was robbed and stripped on the highway with his whole retinue. The king himself contributed to this dissolution of law, by his facility in granting pardons to felons from the solicitation of courtiers. Laws were made to prevent this prerogative, and remonstrances of the commons were presented against the abuse of it. But the gratifying of a powerful nobleman continued still to be of more importance, than the protection of the people.

CHAP. VIII.

MANNERS. A. D. 1216—1399.

AN almost unlimited hospitality reigned in the palaces of princes, and the castles of great barons, in the times we are now delineating. The court of some

ſome of the kings of England were ſplendid and numerous, to a degree hardly credible. That of Richard II. is thus deſcribed by Stowe. "His royalty was ſuch, that whereſoever he lay, his perſon was guarded by two hundred Cheſhiremen; he had about him thirteen biſhops, beſides barons, knights, eſquires and others; inſomuch that ten thouſand people came to the houſehold for meat every day, as appeared by the meſſes told out of the kitchen to three hundred ſervitors." We may form ſome idea of the magnificence and hoſpitality of the opulent barons of thoſe times, from an account of the houſehold expences of the earl of Lancaſter in 1213, from which it appears, that this nobleman expended in houſe-keeping, during that year, no leſs than 7,309l. equal to 100,000l. of our preſent money. The conſumption of wine alone was 371 pipes. The nobility in general ſpent almoſt all their revenues, in hoſpitality at their caſtles in the country, which were ever open to ſtrangers of condition, as well as to their own vaſſals and followers. This profuſe way of living began to decline a little towards the concluſion of this period; and ſome barons, inſtead of dining always in the great hall with their numerous dependents, according to ancient cuſtom, dined ſometimes in private parlours, with their own families and friends. But this innovation was very unpopular, and ſubjected thoſe who adopted it to much reproach.

A ſplendid oſtentatious kind of gallantry, expreſſive of the moſt profound reſpect and higheſt admiration of the beauty and virtue of the ladies, was ſtudied and practiſed by the martial barons, knights, and eſquires of this period. This gallantry appeared in its greateſt luſtre at royal tournaments, and other grand and ſolemn feſtivals, at which the ladies ſhone in their brighteſt ornaments, and received peculiar honours. When Edward III. in 1344, celebrated the magnificent feaſt of the round table, at Windſor, to which all the nobility of his own dominions, and of the neighbouring countries had been invited, queen Philippa, and three hundred

hundred ladies, illuſtrious for their birth and beauty, uniformly dreſſed in the richeſt habits, adorned that ſolemnity, and were treated with the moſt pompous romantic teſtimonies of reſpect and admiration. Many of the moſt magnificent tournaments of thoſe times were the effect of this kind of gallantry, and deſigned for the honour and entertainment of the ladies, who appeared at theſe ſolemnities in vaſt numbers, and from different countries. Sometimes a few brave and gallant knights publiſhed a proclamation in their own, and ſeveral other countries, aſſerting the ſuperior beauty and virtue of the ladies whom they loved, and challenging all who dared to diſpute that ſuperiority, to meet them at a certain time and place to determine the important controverſy by combat. Theſe challenges were conſtantly accepted, and produced tournaments, to which princes, knights, and ladies of different nations crowded. This romantic gallantry diſplayed itſelf in times of war, as well as peace, and youthful knights fought as much for the honour of their miſtreſſes as of their country. A party of Engliſh and a party of French cavalry met near Cherburg in 1379, and immediately prepared for battle. When they were on the point of engaging, Sir Lancelot de Lorres, a French knight, cried aloud, that he had a more beautiful miſtreſs than any of the Engliſh. This was denied by Sir John Copeland, who run the Frenchman through the body with his ſpear, and laid him dead at his feet. When Edward III. raiſed a great army to aſſert his claim to the crown of France, a conſiderable number of young Engliſh gentleman put each of them a patch upon one of his eyes, making a ſolemn vow to his miſtreſs, that he would not take it off till he had performed ſome notable exploit in France to her honour.

The revival of chivalry by the Edwards contributed not a little to promote valour, munificence, and this ſplendid kind of gallantry, among perſons of condition, who aſpired to the honours of knighthood, which were then objects of ambition to the greateſt princes. An

ingenious writer, who had ſtudied this ſubject with the greateſt care, affirms poſitively, that "all the heroic virtues which then exiſted in the ſeveral ſtates of chriſtendom, were the fruits of chivalry*." This aſſertion may be too ſtrong; but it cannot be denied, that the ſpirit and the laws of chivalry were friendly to the cauſe of virtue. By theſe laws none but perſons of unſullied characters could obtain the honours of knighthood, which were conferred with much ſolemnity, on the moſt public occaſions, and in the preſence of the moſt auguſt aſſemblies. After the candidate had given ſufficient proofs of his prowefs, and other virtues, to merit that diſtinction, and had prepared himſelf for receiving it, by faſting, confeſſing, hearing maſſes, and other acts of devotion, he took an oath conſiſting of twenty-ſix articles, in which, amongſt other things, he ſwore, that he would be a good, brave, loyal, juſt, generous, and gentle knight, a champion of the church and clergy, a protector of the ladies, and a redreſſer of the wrongs of widows and orphans. Thoſe knights who acquitted themſelves of theſe obligations in an honourable manner, were favoured by the fair and courted by the great; but thoſe who were guilty of diſhonourable actions, were degraded with every poſſible mark of infamy. All this could hardly fail to have ſome influence on the conduct of thoſe, who were inveſted with that dignity.

Chivalry declined in England during the inglorious reigns of king John and Henry III. but revived under Edward I. That prince was one of the moſt accompliſhed knights of the age in which he flouriſhed, and delighted in feaſts of chivalry. It is a ſufficient proof of this, that when he was on his return from the Holy Land, after his father's death, and knew that his preſence was ardently deſired in England, he accepted an invitation to a tournament, at Chalons in Burgundy. At that famous tournament, which terminated in a real battle, he diſplayed his valour and dexterity to great

* St. Palaye ſur l'Ancienne Chevalrie.

advantage,

advantage, and gained a complete victory. Edward III. was no less fond of chivalry, and encouraged it both by his example and munificence. In this he was influenced by policy, as well as inclination. Having formed the design of asserting his claim to the crown of France, he laboured to inspire his own subjects with an enterprising spirit, and to entice as many valiant foreigners as possible into his service. With this view he celebrated several pompous tournaments, to which he invited all strangers who delighted in feats of arms, entertained them with the greatest hospitality, and loaded such of them as excelled in these martial sports with honors and rewards, in order to attach them to his person and engage them to fight in his cause. With the same view, and about the same time, he founded the most honourable order of the garter, of which his own heroic son, the black prince, was the first knight; and all the first companions were persons famous for their victories at tournaments, and in real wars. In a word, chivalry, which is now an object of ridicule, was, in those times, a matter of the greatest moment, and had no little influence on the manners of mankind, and the fate of nations.

The varied and ridiculous modes of dress, which this period produced, were very justly the subject of bitter reprehension from the satirists of the time. What could exhibit a more fantastical appearance than an English beau of the fourteenth century? He wore long pointed shoes, fastened to his knees by gold or silver chains; a stocking of one colour on one leg, and of another colour on the other; short breeches which did not reach to the middle of his thighs; a coat, one half white, and the other half black or blue; a long beard; a silk hood buttoned under his chin, embroidered with grotesque figures of animals, and sometimes ornamented with gold, silver, and precious stones. This dress was the top of the mode in the reign of Edward III. The fashionable females are thus described by Knyghton. "The tournaments are attended by many ladies of the first rank and greatest beauty,

dreſſed in party-coloured tunics. Their tippets are very ſhort, their caps remarkably ſmall, and wrapt about their heads with cords; their girdles are ornamented with gold and ſilver; and they wear ſhort ſwords, like daggers, before them, which hang acroſs their ſtomach. They are mounted on the fineſt horſes, with the richeſt furniture; thus equipped they ride from place to place in queſt of tournaments, by which they diſſipate their fortunes, and often ruin their reputation."

The paſſion for feaſting increaſed ſo much in England, during the 14th century, that a ſevere law was enacted by Edward III. to reſtrain certain ranks to proportionable banquets. His example, however, did not tend to enforce it; for, when his ſon, Lionel of Clarence, married Violentis of Milan, there were 30 courſes, and the fragments of the table fed 1000 perſons.

When we ſpeak of the luxuries of our anceſtors, we muſt not forget *the wines*. This expreſſion denoted a collation taken by the great and elegant juſt before they went to bed, which conſiſted of ſpiced liquors and delicate cakes. The wines were ſometimes given immediately after dinner, and on the ceremonious viſits of faſhionable people at any hour.

In the courſe of the 14th century the Anglo-Saxon gradually changed into what may be called the Engliſh language, and forced its way into the courts of juſtice, from which it had been excluded almoſt 300 years. That animoſity which had long ſubſiſted between the poſterity of the Normans and of the Anglo-Saxons, was now extinguiſhed, and they were in a great meaſure conſolidated into one people. The Normans, who were engaged in agriculture, trade and manufactures, found it neceſſary to ſpeak the language of the multitude, into which they introduced many French words and idioms. Beſides this, Chaucer, Gower, and ſeveral others, compoſed a number of volumes in Engliſh, and, being men of learning, borrowed many expreſſions from the Greek, Latin, Italian, and French lan-

languages, with which they enriched their own. But the mode of ſpelling was unſettled, and very different from the modern. Several words were then in common uſe, which are now become obſolete; and the meaning of ſeveral words was very different from what it is at preſent. A knave for example, ſignified a ſervant, in oppoſition to a freeman; and ſometimes a male, in oppoſition to a female: "*The time is come, and a knave child ſhe bare**." Its modern meaning is well known.

CHAP. IX.

INCIDENTS AND CURIOUS PARTICULARS. A. D. 1216—1399.

IN 1236, at Merton, in Surry, the lay-nobility made the celebrated declaration, "We will not ſuffer the laws of England to be altered." The pope had endeavoured to introduce a conſtitution of the canon law, which legitimates, on the marriage of the parents, all children born of thoſe parents before ſuch marriage. But here the laity triumphed over the clergy.

In 1246, Cheapſide was a void ſpace, called Crown-field, from the Crown-Inn adjoining to it. The City lay more to the Eaſtward. In 1251, a bard, ſtyled "*Maſter Henry the Verſifier*," had one hundred ſhillings allowed him, as a fee of office. He is thus deſcribed, in a ſharp ſatire, by an humorous Corniſh poet, whom he happened to offend by reflections on his country.

"The thigh of a ſparrow, the feet of a goat,
"Hare-lips and boar's fangs, thee a monſter denote,
"Thou canſt whine like a whelp, like a bull thou canſt roar,
"Thou art foul as a witch, and as black as a Moor,
"Thus peerleſs appearing, believe *me* thy ſongſter,
"Thy grimly grimaces demonſtrate a monſter."

In 1276, it was enacted, that no ſhip ſhould be deemed a wreck, out of which a *man*, a *dog*, or a *cat* had eſcaped with life.

* Chaucer.

In 1283, say the annals of Dunstable, "we sold our slave by birth, William Pike, with all his family, and received one mark from the buyer." Men must then have been cheaper than horses.

In 1302, the mariner's compass was invented by Givia of Naples.—Much about the same time the exchequer was robbed of 100,000 pounds. The abbot and monks of Westminster were indicted for the robbery, but acquitted. Though the criminals were never discovered, the indignation of king David I. fell on the society of Lombard merchants.

In 1316, on account of a great famine, the parliament limited the price of provisions. An ox cost two pounds eight shillings; a fat hog, ten shillings; a sheep, three shillings and six-pence; a fat goose, seven-pence halfpenny; a fat capon, sixpence; a fat hen, three-pence; two chickens, three-pence; four pigeons, three-pence; two dozen eggs, three-pence. The rates affixed by parliament were inferior to the usual market prices, in those years of famine and mortality of cattle, and these commodities, instead of a third, had really risen to a half of the present value. But the famine at that time was so consuming, that wheat was sometimes sold for above four pounds ten shillings a quarter; a certain proof of the wretched state of agriculture in those ages.

In 1327, Southwark, having long been an asylum for rogues and vagabonds, was united to London, and placed under the power of its Lord Mayor and Aldermen.

In 1340, gunpowder and guns were first invented by Swartz, a monk of Cologne. In 1346, Edward III. had four pieces of cannon, which contributed to gain him the battle of Cressy. Bombs and mortars were invented about this time.

In 1349, Edward III. instituted the order of the garter, in imitation of some others of a similar nature, which had been established in different parts of Europe. A story prevails, but unsupported by ancient authority, that the countess of Salisbury, at a ball, happening

to

to drop her garter, the king took it up, and obſerving ſome of his courtiers to ſmile, cried out, *Honi ſoit qui mal y penſe*, "Evil to him that evil thinks." He then inſtituted the order of the garter in memorial of this event, and gave theſe words as the motto of the order.

In 1386, the magnificent caſtle of Windſor was built by Edward III. and his method of conducting the work may ſerve as a ſpecimen of the condition of the people in that age. Inſtead of engaging workmen by contracts and wages, he aſſeſſed every county in England to ſend him a certain number of maſons, tilers, and carpenters, as if he had been levying an army.

The greateſt novelty introduced into the civil government, during the reign of Richard II. was the creation of peers by patent. Lord Beauchamp of Hok was the firſt peer advanced *to the houſe of lords, in this manner.*

BOOK V.

CHAP. I.

MILITARY HISTORY FROM THE ACCESSION OF HENRY IV. IN 1399, TO THE ACCESSION OF HENRY VII. IN 1485.

HENRY IV. ſon of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, fourth ſon of Edward III. being ſettled on the throne of England in prejudice to the elder branches of his family, ſeveral of the principal nobility, who entered into a conſpiracy againſt him, were ſecured and executed. This was the cauſe of an inſurrection in Wales. Owen Glendour, deſcended from the ancient princes of that country, having become obnoxious on account of his attachment to the late king, lord Gray, who was cloſely connected with Henry, and had a great fortune in the marſhes of Wales, availed himſelf of this circumſtance to ſeize upon his neighbour's eſtate. Glendour recovered poſſeſſion by the ſword. Henry ſent aſſiſtance to lord Gray. The Welſh took part with Glendour, when a troubleſome and tedious war was kindled, which the Welſh chieftain long ſuſtained by his valour and activity.

A. D. 1401.

The confuſions incident to all great ſtates now tempted the Scots to make incurſions into England. Archibald, earl of Douglas, on his return from one of theſe irruptions, was overtaken by the Percies, at a place called Homeldon, on the borders of England, and a fierce battle enſued, wherein the Scots were totally routed, and Douglas himſelf, with many others of the nobility and gentry, were taken priſoners. When

Henry

Henry received intelligence of this victory, he ſent a meſſage to the earl of Northumberland not to ranſom his priſoners, as he intended to detain them, in order to make an advantageous peace with Scotland. But the earl regarding them as his right, according to the laws of war in that age, this demand gave great diſguſt to him, more eſpecially, when he conſidered himſelf as the principal perſon to whom Henry was indebted for his crown.

The impatient ſpirit of his ſon, Henry Percy, ſurnamed *Hotſpur*, and the factious diſpoſition of the earl of Worceſter, Northumberland's younger brother, inflamed the deſcendants of that nobleman. He entered into a correſpondence with Glendour, gave liberty to the earl of Douglas, with whom he made an alliance, and rouſed up all his partizans to arms. Northumberland being ſeized with a ſudden illneſs, young Percy took the command of the troops, and marched towards Shrewſbury, in order to join his forces with thoſe of Glendour. The king had fortunately a ſmall army on foot, with which he inſtantly hurried away, and approached Percy, near Shrewſbury, before he was joined by Glendour. The policy of one leader, and the impatience of the other, immediately brought on a battle. On the preceding evening, Percy publiſhed a manifeſto, in which, after renouncing his allegiance, he enumerated all the grievances of the nation. Among theſe, he upbraids him with uſurping on the title of the houſe of Mortimer, who had a prior right to the throne, being the immediate deſcendants of Lionel, duke of Clarence, the elder brother of the late duke of Lancaſter.

The armies were nearly equal in number, conſiſting of 12,000 men each; and we ſcarcely find any battle in thoſe ages, where the ſhock was more terrible or more conſtant. Henry expoſed his perſon in the thickeſt of the fight. His gallant ſon, the prince of Wales, whoſe military atchievements were afterwards ſo renowned, and who here performed his noviciate in arms, ſignalized himſelf in his father's footſteps; and

even

even a wound, which he received in the face with an arrow, could not oblige him to quit the field. On the other side, Percy supported that fame which he had acquired in many a bloody combat; and Douglas still appeared his rival, amidst the horror and confusion of the day. But while the armies were contending in this furious manner, the death of Percy, by an unknown hand, decided the victory, and the royalists prevailed.

The earl of Northumberland, having recovered from his sickness, had levied a fresh army, and was on his march to join his son; but hearing of the defeat at Shrewsbury, he dismissed his forces, and came with a small retinue to the king at York. He pretended, that his sole intention in arming, was to mediate between the parties. This seemed to satisfy Henry, who granted him a pardon. Not being able, however, to repress his enmity towards the king, the earl afterwards joined in rebellion with several others, and at length lost his life in the cause.

Henry being freed, by the death of Northumberland, and that of Glendour, which happened soon after, from all his domestic enemies, endeavoured to regain the popularity which he had lost by his late severities. The house of commons, on this occasion, became sensible of their own importance, and began to assume powers, which had not usually been exercised by their predecessors. Among other advances of this kind, in the sixth year of Henry's reign, when they voted him supplies, they appointed *treasurers of their own*, to see that the money was disbursed for the purposes intended.

Henry died at Westminster in the 46th year of his age, and the 13th of his reign, leaving behind him the reputation of a wise prince, and a prudent king, but of a bad man. He had by his first wife, Mary de Bohun, daughter of the earl of Hereford, four sons, namely, Henry his successor, Thomas duke of Clarence, John duke of Bedford, and Humphrey duke of Gloucester; and two daughters. His second wife, Jane, daughter of the king of Navarre, brought him no issue.

Henry

Henry V. succeeded to the throne in 1413. The precarious situation of his father had so much infected his temper with jealousy, that he entertained unreasonable suspicions with regard to the fidelity of his eldest son, and excluded him from all share in public business. The active spirit of young Henry, restrained from its proper exercise, broke out into extravagances of riot and debauchery, which threw him among companions totally unworthy of his rank and station. When heated with liquor and jollity, he scrupled not to accompany his riotous associates in attacking persons on the streets and highways. One of his dissolute companions having been indicted before Sir William Gascoigne, the chief justice, for some disorders, Henry was not ashamed to appear at the bar with the criminal, in order to give him countenance and protection. Finding that his presence did not overawe the chief justice, he proceeded to insult him on his tribunal. But Gascoigne, mindful of the character he then bore, ordered the prince to be imprisoned for his rude behaviour, to which Henry peaceably submitted. The nation in general considered the young prince with more indulgence than his father, and observed so many gleams of generosity, spirit, and magnanimity, breaking through his wildness, that they never ceased hoping for his amendment.

The first steps taken by the young king confirmed those prepossessions in his favour. He immediately dismissed the companions of his dissolute courses, and received the wise ministers of his father, who had checked his sports, with all the marks of favour and confidence. The chief justice himself, who trembled to approach the royal presence, met with praises instead of reproaches for his past conduct.

As it was the dying request of the late king to his son not to allow the English to remain long in peace, which was apt to breed intestine commotions, he determined to take advantage of the confusion which reigned in France, through the contentions of the dukes of Orleans and Burgundy, each of whom aspired

ed to the administration of affairs, Charles VI. by ſudden fits of frenzy, being rendered incapable of conducting the government. Henry accordingly aſſembled a large fleet and army at Southampton, in order to invade that kingdom, and landed near Harfleur, at the head of 6000 men at arms, and 24,000 foot, moſtly archers. He immediately laid ſiege to that place, and, notwithſtanding he met with a vigorous reſiſtance, took it.

The fatigues of the ſiege, and the unuſual heat of the ſeaſon, had ſo waſted the Engliſh army, that Henry could enter on no farther enterpriſe; and was obliged to think of returning to England. But as he had diſmiſſed his tranſports, he lay under the neceſſity of marching by land to Calais. While he was purſuing this route, continually haraſſed by the enemy, his proviſions cut off, and his ſoldiers languiſhing with ſickneſs and fatigue, he was ſurprized to obſerve the whole French army, conſiſting of ten times the number of his diminiſhed forces, under the command of the conſtable D'Albert, drawn up on the plains of Agincourt. Henry's ſituation was now exactly ſimilar to that of king Edward at Creſſy, and that of the Black Prince at Poictiers, and the memory of thoſe great events inſpired the Engliſh with courage, and made them hope for a like deliverance from their preſent difficulties. An engagement could not be avoided. Henry, therefore, as the enemy were ſo ſuperior in numbers, drew up his army on a narrow ground, between two woods, to cover each flank, and patiently expected in that poſture their attack. Had the French general declined a combat, the Engliſh muſt have relinquiſhed the advantages of their ſituation; but the impetuous valour of the nobility, and a vain confidence in ſuperior numbers, brought on an action, which proved glorious to the Engliſh.

After the battle was ended, and all appearance of oppoſition was over, an alarm was heard from behind, which proceeded from ſome peaſants, who had fallen upon the baggage, and were putting the unarmed followers

lowers of the camp to the ſword. Henry ſeeing the enemy on all ſides of him, began to entertain apprehenſions from his priſoners, the number of whom exceeded that of his whole army; and he thought it neceſſary to iſſue general orders for putting them to death. But on diſcovering the truth, he ſtopped the ſlaughter, and ſaved many. In this battle, ſo much celebrated by the name of the battle of Agincourt, the killed amounted to 10,000, and 14,000 were made priſoners, while the loſs of the Engliſh did not exceed forty. Henry without diſcontinuing his march for a moment, carried his priſoners to Calais, and thence to England. He even concluded a truce with the enemy; and it was not till after an interval of two years that any body of Engliſh troops appeared in France.

During this interruption of hoſtilities from England, France was ſtill expoſed to all the furies of a civil war; in the courſe of which, the duke of Orleans was aſſaſſinated by the duke of Burgundy, and he, in his turn, fell by the treachery of the dauphin. In a ſtate ſo ill prepared to reſiſt a foreign enemy, A. D. 1418. Henry landed in Normandy, at the head of 25,000 men, and after reducing ſeveral places, even threatened Paris, from whence the terror of his arms had obliged the court to remove to Troye. In the midſt of theſe ſucceſſes, he was agreeably ſurpriſed to find his enemies, inſtead of combining againſt him, diſpoſed to ruſh into his arms, and to make him the inſtrument of their vengeance on each other. The imbecility into which the French king had fallen, rendering him paſſive in every thing, a treaty was entered into, wherein it was agreed that Henry ſhould eſpouſe the princeſs Catherine; that king Charles, during his lifetime, ſhould enjoy the title and dignity of king of France; that Henry ſhould be acknowledged heir of the monarchy, and be intruſted with the preſent adminiſtration of the government; and that the kingdom ſhould paſs to his heirs general.

In a few days after ſigning the treaty of Troye, Henry eſpouſed the princeſs Catherine, and carrying

his

his father-in-law to Paris, took poſſeſſion of that capital. He then turned his arms, with ſucceſs, againſt the dauphin, who aſſumed the ſtyle and authority of regent. And to crown all this good fortune, his queen was delivered of a ſon, whoſe birth was celebrated by rejoicings no leſs pompous and ſincere at Paris, than at London. The infant prince ſeemed to be univerſally regarded as the future heir of both monarchies. But the glory of the king, when it had nearly reached the ſummit, was ſtopped ſhort by the hand of nature. He was ſeized with a fiſtula, a malady which the ſurgeons at that time had not ſkill enough to cure, and died in the 34th year of his age, and the 10th of his reign.

A. D. 1422.

This prince poſſeſſed many eminent virtues. His abilities appeared equally in the cabinet and in the field. The boldneſs of his enterpriſes was no leſs remarkable, than his perſonal valour in conducting them. He had the talent of attaching his friends by affability, and of gaining his enemies by addreſs and clemency. The Engliſh, dazzled by the luſtre of his character, ſtill more than by that of his victories, were reconciled to the defects in his title, and the French almoſt forgot that he was an enemy. He left by his queen, Catherine of France, only one ſon, not full nine months old, who ſucceeded to the throne. Catherine, ſoon after his death, married Sir Owen Tudor, a Welſh gentleman, by whom ſhe had two ſons, of whom the eldeſt was created earl of Richmond, and the ſecond earl of Pembroke. The family of Tudor, firſt raiſed to diſtinction by this alliance, mounted afterwards the throne of England.

Henry VI. ſurnamed of Windſor, being a minor, the affairs of government were conducted by his two uncles, the dukes of Bedford and Glouceſter, men of great courage and accompliſhments, but unable to preſerve their brother's conquerſs. Upon the death of Charles VI. the affections of the French for his family revived in the perſon of his ſon and ſucceſſor Charles VII. The duke of Bedford, who was regent of France,

France, performed many glorious actions, and at last laid siege to Orleans, the capture of which would have completed the conquest of France. The siege, however, was raised by the valour and good conduct of Joan d'Arc, the *Maid of Orleans*, a phenomenon hardly to be paralleled in history. She was a servant of a small inn, and in that station had been accustomed to tend the horses of the guests, and to perform those offices which fall to the share of the men servants. She was of an irreproachable life, and had never given any proofs of that enterprising spirit, which afterwards rendered her name so famous. The distressed situation of France excited the feelings of every rank; and Joan, inflamed by the general sentiment, was seized with a wild desire of bringing relief to her sovereign in his present distresses. Her mind being continually employed on this object, she fancied that she saw visions, and heard voices, exhorting her to re-establish the throne of France, and to expel the foreign invaders. Thinking herself destined by heaven to this office, she went to Vaucouleurs, and having obtained admission to the governor, informed him of her inspirations and intentions. Though the governor treated her at first with some neglect, he at last adopted her schemes, and gave her some attendants to conduct her to Chinon, where the French court then resided.

Being introduced to the king, she offered in the name of the supreme creator, to raise the siege of Orleans, and conduct him to Rheims to be crowned. An assembly of grave doctors examined her mission, and she was interrogated by parliament, who were all convinced of her inspiration. Joan was now armed cap-a-pee, mounted on horseback, and shown in that martial habiliment to the people. She was then sent to Blois, where a large convoy was prepared for the supply of Orleans; and having ordered all the soldiers to confess themselves before they set out on their enterprise, she put herself at the head of them, with a consecrated banner in her hand, and safely escorted the supply to the city. The French now believed them-

selves invincible under her influence, while a dead silence and astonishment reigned among those troops formerly so elated with victory. The spirit resulting from a long course of uninterrupted success, was on a sudden transferred from the victors to the vanquished.

A. D. 1429. The siege of Orleans was soon raised; and the French allowing the English no leisure to recover from their consternation, pushed on their conquest till Charles was crowned at Rheims, as the *Maid* had foretold. During the ceremony she stood by the king's side, holding in her hand the sacred banner. After the coronation she wished to retire to her native place, but the French general being sensible of the advantages which might still be reaped from her presence, she was prevailed on to stay. In pursuance of this advice, she threw herself into the town of Compeigne, at that time besieged by the duke of Burgundy, where she was taken prisoner by the English in making a sally. The duke of Bedford, resolved upon her ruin, ordered her to be tried by an ecclesiastical court, for sorcery, idolatry, and magic. She was found guilty by her ignorant or iniquitous judges; her revelations were declared to be the inventions of the devil to delude the people; and this admirable heroine was cruelly delivered over to the flames, and expiated by the punishment of fire the signal services done to her prince and country.

The affairs of the English, however, instead of being advanced by this act of cruelty, went every day more and more to decay. Even the great abilities of the regent could not stop the torrent of ill success; till at length his death put a concluding stroke to the triumph of the English, and, after some years, they had nothing left of their conquests, but the town of Calais.

In proportion as Henry advanced in years, his character became fully known in the court. Of the most inoffensive and simple manners, but of the most slender capacity, he was fitted to be governed by those who surrounded him, and it was easy to foresee that his reign would prove a perpetual minority. As he had now reached the

the age of manhood, it was natural to think of chuſing him a queen; and each party was ambitious of making him receive one from their hand, as it was probable this circumſtance would decide for ever the victory between them. The cardinal of Wincheſter proved ſucceſsful, and Henry was contracted to Margaret of Anjou, daughter of Regnier, titular king of Sicily, Naples, and Jeruſalem, deſcended from a count of Anjou, who had left theſe magnificent titles to his poſterity, without any real power or poſſeſſions. The treaty of marriage was ratified in England, and Margaret on her arrival, fell immediately into cloſe connections with the cardinal and his party, who, fortified by her powerful patronage, reſolved on the final ruin of the duke of Glouceſter.

This generous prince had already received from his rivals a cruel mortification. His ducheſs, the daughter of lord Cobham, had been accuſed of witchcraft. It was pretended that there was found in her poſſeſſion, a waxen figure of the king, which ſhe and her aſſociates melted in a magical manner before a ſlow fire, with an intention of making Henry's ſtrength waſte away by the like inſenſible degrees. The nature of this crime, as the philoſophic Hume ingeniouſly obſerves, ſo oppoſite to all common ſenſe, ſeems always to exempt the accuſers from obſerving the rules of common ſenſe in their evidence. The priſoners being pronounced guilty, the ducheſs was condemned to do public penance, and to ſuffer perpetual impriſonment; and her ſuppoſed accomplices were executed. But the people, contrary to their uſual practice on ſuch marvellous trials, acquitted the unhappy ſufferers, and aſcribed theſe violent proceedings ſolely to the malice of the duke's enemies. The cardinal of Wincheſter and his party, therefore, became ſenſible that it was neceſſary to deſtroy a man whoſe popularity made him dangerous, and whoſe reſentment they had ſo much cauſe to apprehend. Being accuſed of treaſon, and impriſoned, he was ſoon after found dead in bed, and though his body bore no marks of outward violence, no one

doubted but he had fallen a victim to the vengeance of his enemies. His murder excited general abhorrence, and laid a foundation for the troubles that enſued.

The diſcontents of the people broke out in various commotions, which were ſoon ſuppreſſed; but there aroſe one in Kent, which was attended with more dangerous conſequences. John Cade, a native of Ireland, and a man of low condition, who had been obliged for his crimes to fly into France, obſerving, on his return, this diſpoſition, aſſumed the name of Mortimer, and at the head of 20,000 Kentiſh men, encamped on Blackheath, in his way to the capital, in order to obtain a redreſs of grievances. The city opened its gates to Cade, who for ſome time maintained great order and diſcipline among his followers. But at length, not being able to hinder them from plundering a rich houſe, the citizens, aſſiſted by a detachment of ſoldiers from the tower, repulſed the rebels with great ſlaughter. The Kentiſh men were ſo diſcouraged at this blow, that upon receiving a general pardon, they retreated towards Rocheſter, and there diſperſed. This pardon was ſoon after annulled, and a price being ſet on Cade's head, he was killed by a gentleman of Suſſex, and many of his followers were capitally puniſhed for their rebellion.

It was imagined that the duke of York ſecretly inſtigated Cade to this attempt. Be this as it may, it occaſioned his right to the throne to become every day more and more the ſubject of converſation, and excited his partizans to maintain it in all companies. But the duke himſelf, being averſe to violent meaſures, acted with great moderation; and even when no viſible object lay between him and the throne, he was prevented by his own ſcruples from mounting it.

A. D. 1454. The king, however, being ſeized with a diſtemper, which ſo far increaſed his natural imbecility, as to render him incapable of maintaining even the appearance of royalty, the duke of York was appointed lieutenant of the kingdom, with powers to open and hold a parliament.

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The forbearance of Richard, upon this occaſion, though very amiable and unuſual, proved the ſource of all thoſe furious wars and commotions which enſued. For no ſooner was Henry recovered from his diſtemper, ſo as to carry the appearance of exerciſing the royal power, than his queen, a woman of a bold ſpirit and manly underſtanding, adviſed him to diſannul the protectorſhip of the duke, and place the adminiſtration in the hands of Somerſet, who was obnoxious to the people. Richard, upon this, having levied an army, without advancing any pretenſions to the crown, a battle was fought near St. Alban's, in which the Yorkiſts were victorious. The king himſelf fell into the hands of the duke, by whom he was treated with great reſpect and tenderneſs.

This was the firſt blood ſpilt in that fatal quarrel, which laſted thirty years, was ſignalized by twelve pitched battles, coſt the lives of eighty princes of the blood, and almoſt entirely annihilated the ancient nobility of England.

Various were the turns of ſucceſs during this conteſt between Henry and the duke of York. The king, by the direction of Margaret, having reſumed his prerogative, a battle was fought on Bloreheath, in Staffordſhire, which terminated in favour of the duke. Sir Andrew Trollop, however, ſoon after deſerting to the royaliſts, when a general action was every hour expected, the Yorkiſts were ſo diſmayed, that they ſeparated without ſtriking a ſtroke. After ſeveral engagements the duke of York was ſlain in a battle, between him and the queen, at Wakefield, in the year 1460. This much and juſtly lamented prince left three ſons, Edward, who ſucceeded to the title, and afterwards to the throne, George and Richard, with three daughters. The event gave freſh ſpirits to the Lancaſtrian party.

Upon the death of the duke of York, the earl of Warwick took the command of the forces belonging to that party. This nobleman, commonly known, from the ſubſequent events, by the appellation of the *King-maker*, was diſtinguiſhed for his bravery, hoſpi-

tality, and magnificence. Having always been zealous in the cauſe of the houſe of York, he entertained an inveterate hatred to Margaret and her favourites. Soon after he had aſſumed the command, he met the queen at St. Alban's where another action enſued, in which he was defeated, and the king fell again into the hands of his own party. This weak prince was ſure to be almoſt equally a priſoner which ever faction prevailed, as the queen and her miniſters held him in a continual ſtate of ſubmiſſion to their will.

Edward the young duke of York now appeared at the head of the cauſe, and gave new ſpirits to it. This prince being very handſome, and remarkable for his bravery, activity, and affability, ſoon found himſelf ſo much poſſeſſed of public favour, that he determined to aſſume the name and dignity of king, and to inſiſt openly on his claim. For this purpoſe, he advanced with the remains of Warwick's army towards London, and having obliged Margaret to retire, entered the city amidſt the acclamations of the people. Finding this a favourable juncture to poſſeſs himſelf of the crown, he aſſembled his army in St. John's Fields, and having harangued the ſurrounding multitude, aſked them whether they would have Henry or him for their king. The people unanimouſly declaring in his favour, this popular election was ratified by a great number of lords and biſhops, and the new king was proclaimed under the title of Edward IV. In this manner ended the reign of Henry VI. who had been proclaimed king both of France and England, while he was in his cradle, and began his life with the moſt ſplendid proſpects. His weakneſs, however, and his diſputed title brought about this revolution.

A. D. 1461.

Young Edward, now in his twentieth year, was of a temper well fitted to make his way through ſuch a ſcene of war, and devaſtation, as muſt conduct him to the full poſſeſſion of his crown. He was bold, active, and enterpriſing, but ſo totally inſenſible to the leaſt movements of compaſſion, that the ſcaffold, as well as

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the field, inceſſantly ſtreamed with the nobleſt blood of England.

The animoſity between the two contending families was now become implacable, and the nation, divided in its affections, took different ſymbols of party. The adherents of the houſe of Lancaſter having choſen, as their mark of diſtinction, the *Red Roſe*, and thoſe of York, the *White*, theſe civil wars were known over Europe by the name of the "Quarrel between the *Two Roſes*."

Soon after his coronation, Edward privately married Elizabeth, the widow of Sir John Gray, though he had ſome time before ſent the earl of Warwick to demand the ſiſter of the French king in marriage. In this embaſſy he was ſucceſsful, and nothing remained but to bring over the princeſs into England. When the ſecret of Edward's marriage broke out, the haughty earl deeming himſelf affronted, returned to England inflamed with rage and indignation, and from being the king's beſt friend became his moſt formidable enemy. To ſuch a length did this nobleman carry his reſentment, that although the greateſt animoſity had ſo long prevailed between him and the houſe of Lancaſter, he was, at laſt, prevailed on to eſpouſe the cauſe of Henry, who, by the aſſiſtance of Lewis VI. of France, was replaced on the throne, whilſt Edward narrowly eſcaped into Holland. Returning from thence after nine months, he advanced to London, under pretence of claiming his dukedom of York; but being received into the capital, he reſumed the exerciſe of royal authority, and made king Henry his priſoner, who, deſtined to be the perpetual ſport of fortune, thus fell again into the hands of his enemies.

The king now finding himſelf in a condition to face Warwick, who had taken poſt at Barnet, marched from London to attack him; and being joined the night before the battle, by his brother Clarence, who, upon this occaſion, ungenerouſly deſerted his father in law, victory declared in his favour. The earl, after having

diſplayed uncommon valour, loſt his life in the engagement, as did a great number of his adherents.

The ſame day on which this deciſive battle was fought, queen Margaret and her ſon, a young prince of great hopes, now about eighteen years of age, landed at Weymouth, ſupported by a ſmall body of French forces. When this princeſs received the unhappy tidings, her courage quite forſook her, and ſhe took ſanctuary in the abbey of Beaulieu. But being encouraged by the appearance of ſeveral powerful noblemen, ſhe reſumed her former ſpirit, and determined to defend to the utmoſt, the ruins of her fallen fortunes. She advanced, through the counties of Devon, Somerſet, and Glouceſter, towards the north, increaſing her army in each day's march; but at laſt, being overtaken by Edward at Tewkeſbury, ſhe was totally defeated.

Margaret and her ſon were made priſoners, and brought to the king, who aſked the prince, how he dared to invade his dominions? The young prince replying with a noble intrepidity, that he came thither to claim his juſt inheritance, the ungenerous Edward, inſenſible to pity, ſtruck him on the face with his gauntlet, when the dukes of Clarence and Glouceſter, with ſome other nobleman, taking the blow as a ſignal for farther violence, hurried the prince into the next apartment, and there diſpatched him with their daggers. Margaret was thrown into the tower, and Henry, as was generally believed, killed by the duke of Glouceſter; ſo that all the hopes of the houſe of Lancaſter ſeemed now to be utterly extinguiſhed.

Peace being thus fully reſtored to the nation, a parliament was ſummoned, which ratified, as uſual, all the acts of the victor, and recognized his legal authority. But this prince who had been ſo firm, active, and intrepid, in adverſity, ſtill unable to reſiſt the allurements of proſperity, wholly devoted himſelf, as before, to pleaſure and amuſement.

While the king was thus indulging himſelf in diſſipation, he was roufed from his lethargy by a proſpect of foreign conqueſts. Agreeably to a league he had

had entered into with the duke of Burgundy, he croſſed the ſeas at the head of 10,000 men, to invade the French territories; and though he did not meet with the aſſiſtance he expected from the duke, he obliged the French king to pay him down 75,000 crowns, and likewiſe 50,000 crowns a year during their joint lives; a ſtipulation far from being adequate to the expences of the armament. By this treaty queen Margaret was ranſomed for 50,000 crowns, and after ſuch a variety of fortune, paſſed the remainder of her days in tranquillity, till the year 1482, when ſhe died.

Among other acts of Edward's ſeverity, was his treatment of his brother Clarence, who, though he had rendered him ſuch a ſignal ſervice, in deſerting Warwick, juſt before the battle of Barnet, could never regain his confidence and friendſhip; and a trivial incident gave Edward an opportunity of gratifying his animoſity againſt him. The king hunting one day, in the park of Thomas Burdet, of Arrow, in Warwickſhire, killed a white buck, which was a great favourite of its owner. Burdet, vexed at his loſs, fell into a paſſion, and wiſhed the horns of the deer in the belly of the perſon who had adviſed the king to commit that inſult upon him. Being a friend and dependant of the duke of Clarence, this haſty expreſſion was conſidered as unpardonable by the vindictive Edward, who cauſed the ſpeaker of it to be tried for his life, and executed.

The duke, unable to contain his reſentment at the death of his friend, exclaimed publicly againſt the iniquity of the proſecution. For this he was committed to the tower; and being ſummoned to appear before the houſe of lords, where the king appeared as his accuſer, he was condemned to die. The only favour his brother granted him, after his condemnation, was to leave him the choice of his death, when he was privately drowned in a butt of Malmeſey wine; a choice, which ſeems to imply, that the duke had an extraordinary fondneſs for that liquor.

All the glories of Edward's reign terminated with the civil wars; and even there his laurels were ſullied:

with blood, violence, and cruelty. While he was making preparations for another war with France, he was seized with a distemper, of which he expired in the 42d year of his age, and the 23d of his reign, leaving two sons, Edward prince of Wales, then in his thirteenth year, and Richard duke of York, in his ninth. He had also five daughters. A. D. 1483.

Edward V. having received the oaths of the principal nobility, his uncle Richard, duke of Gloucester, was made protector of the kingdom. He was no sooner invested with this title by the council, than under pretence of guarding the young king, and his brother the duke of York, he committed them both to the tower. He had endeavoured to cover, by the most profound dissimulation, his fierce and savage nature; but being void of all principles of honour, he soon carried his ambitious views beyond the reach of precaution, and no longer hesitated to remove all obstructions which lay between him and the throne.

For this purpose, he first secured to his interest the duke of Buckingham, a man of noble birth, ample possessions, and shining parts. He then tried to gain the assistance of Lord Hastings, whom he found impregnable in his fidelity to the children of Edward, and therefore determined to cut him off. Having summoned a council in the tower, the protector entered with an angry and inflamed countenance, and asked them what punishment those deserved, who had plotted against his life? Hastings replied, that they merited the punishment of traitors. "These traitors," cried Richard, "are the sorceress, my brother's wife, and Jane Shore, his mistress. See to what a condition they have reduced me by their incantations;" upon which he laid bare his arm, all shrivelled and decayed. The counsellors, who knew that this infirmity had attended him from his birth, looked at each other with amazement; but above all lord Hastings, who said, "If they be guilty of these crimes, they deserve the severest punishment."—"And do you reply to me," exclaimed Richard, with your *ifs* and your *ands*? You

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are the chief abettor of that witch, Shore, and are yourſelf a traitor!" Saying this, he ſtruck the table with his hand, when armed men ruſhed in, and ſeizing Haſtings, hurried him into the court-yard of the tower, where they inſtantly beheaded him on a log of timber. The protector, in order to carry on the farce, cauſed Jane Shore to be ſummoned before the council for ſorcery and witchcraft; but as no proofs appeared againſt her, he directed her to be tried in the ſpiritual court, for adultery and lewdneſs, when ſhe did penance in a white ſheet at St. Paul's. Born of reſpectable parents in London, this lady was well educated, and married to a ſubſtantial citizen. But views of intereſt, rather than her inclinations, having been conſulted in the match, ſhe proved unable to reſiſt the allurements of the handſome Edward. She made herſelf reſpectable, however, by her beneficence, humanity, and many other virtues; though theſe could not ſecure her from languiſhing out a long life in ſolitude and indigence.

The arts of violence, exerciſed againſt the neareſt connexions of the late king, prognoſticated the ſevereſt fate to his defenceleſs children; and after the murder of Haſtings, the protector no longer made a ſecret of his intentions to uſurp the crown. He endeavoured to prove the children of Edward illegitimate, as well as his own brother, to the diſgrace of his mother, the ducheſs of York, who was then living. He next ordered the mayor of London, whom he had gained to his intereſt, to call an aſſembly of the citizens; but though the duke of Buckingham, a man of great eloquence, harangued them on Richard's title to the crown, and talked of his numerous virtues, no tokens of approbation enſued. A few of the meaneſt apprentices only, incited by the protector's and Buckingham's ſervants, raiſed a feeble cry of *God ſave king Richard III!*

This being conſtrued by the mayor into the voice of the people, they haſtened to the protector, to make him a tender of the crown, when Richard, with apparent reluctance, accepted the offered dignity.

This ridiculous farce was ſoon followed by a ſcene truly tragical,—the murder of the two young princes. Richard gave orders to Sir Robert Brakenbury, conſtable of the tower, to put his nephews to death. This gentleman, however, refuſing to have any hand in the infamous office, the tyrant commanded him to deliver the keys of the Tower, for one night, to Sir James Tyrrel, by whom, and three of his aſſociates, the young princes were ſuffocated, with the bolſters and pillows, as they lay aſleep, and their bodies buried, under a heap of ſtones, at the foot of the ſtairs.

A. D. 1483.

The firſt acts of *Richard*'s adminiſtration were to beſtow rewards on thoſe who had aſſiſted him in uſurping the crown, and to gain by favors thoſe whom he ſuppoſed could beſt ſupport his future government. But the duke of Buckingham, having formed a conſpiracy againſt him, was encouraged by the ſentiments of the people, who thought it was not only a national diſgrace to endure ſuch a bloody uſurper, but attended with immediate danger to every individual diſtinguiſhed by birth, merit, or ſervices. And as the family of the duke had been devoted to the houſe of Lancaſter, he was eaſily induced to eſpouſe the cauſe of that party, in order to reſtore it to its ancient ſuperiority. This being the caſe, he caſt his eyes towards Henry, the young earl of Richmond, who was deſcended from John of Gaunt, as the only perſon who could free the nation from the tyranny of the preſent uſurper. A match being alſo agreed on, through the mediation of the duke, between young Richmond and the princeſs Elizabeth, eldeſt daughter of the late king Edward, the queen dowager ſent over to the earl, who was at that time in Brittany, a ſum of money to levy foreign forces; promiſing to join him on his firſt appearance, with all the friends and partizans of her family.

The plan being thus laid, the duke of Buckingham retired into Wales, to raiſe an army; but at that very time there happened to fall ſuch uncommonly heavy rains, as rendered the Severn, and the adjacent rivers,

impaſſable. Upon which, the Welſhmen, partly moved by ſuperſtition at this extraordinary event, and partly diſtreſſed by famine in their camp, fell off from him. Buckingham finding himſelf thus deſerted, put on a diſguiſe, and took ſhelter in the houſe of an old ſervant of his family. In a ſhort time, however, being detected in his retreat, he was brought to the king at Saliſbury, and inſtantly executed.

At length the earl of Richmond ſet ſail from Harfleur, in Normandy, with a ſmall army of about 2000 men, and landed, without oppoſition, at Milford-haven, in Wales, while Richard, who knew not in what quarter he might expect the invader, had taken poſt at Nottingham, in the center of the kingdom. The two rivals, at laſt, approached each other at Boſworth, near Leiceſter, Henry at the head of 6000 men, and Richard with an army of above double that number. Soon after the battle began, lord Stanley, who had poſted himſelf at Atherſton, in order to join either party, as occaſion might ſuit, appeared in the field, and declared for Richmond. This meaſure, which was unexpected to the men, though not to their leaders, inſpired unuſual courage into Henry's ſoldiers, and threw Richard's into diſmay and confuſion. The intrepid tyrant, ſenſible of his deſperate ſituation, fought with unexampled fury to the laſt moment, when, overwhelmed by numbers, he periſhed by a fate too mild and honourable for his multiplied and deteſtable enormities. A. D. 1485.

This prince is ſaid to have been of a ſmall ſtature, humpbacked, and of a harſh, diſagreeable countenance, ſo that his body was no leſs deformed than his mind.

After the battle, the ornamental crown, which Richard wore in battle, being placed upon Henry's head, *Long live Henry VII.* reſounded from all quarters, and was continued with repeated acclamations.—Thus ended the race of the Plantagenets, who had ſat upwards of 300 years upon the throne of England, and thus the civil wars, which had ſo long deſolated the kingdom.

CHAP.

CHAP. II.

RELIGION AND ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS. A. D. 1399—1489.

THE Lollards, or followers of Wickliffe, greatly increaſed, during this period, and became formidable both to the church and to civil authority. At the head of this ſect, in the reign of Henry V. was Sir John Oldcaſtle, lord Cobham, a nobleman who had diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his valour and military talents. His high character, and his zeal for the ſect, pointing him out to the archbiſhop of Canterbury, as the proper victim of eccleſiaſtical ſeverity, he was convicted and condemned to the flames. Cobham, however, found means to eſcape from the tower before the day appointed for his execution, when his party, ſtimulated by zeal, appointed a general rendezvous, in order to ſeize the king, and put their perſecutors to the ſword. But Henry having got intelligence of their deſigns, ſurpriſed and took a great number of them, ſome of whom were executed. Cobham himſelf, after a variety of diſtreſſes, being ſeized and hanged as a traitor, his body was burnt on the gibbet, in conſequence of the ſentence pronounced againſt him as a heretic.

The archbiſhop now commanded the univerſity of Oxford to appoint twelve of its moſt orthodox members to examine the works of Wickliffe, and extract his heretical doctrines. In compliance with this injunction, 267 erroneous opinions were tranſmitted to the primate, who ſent them to the pope, with a requeſt to condemn them, and grant him authority to take the body of Wickliffe out of the grave, and throw it on a dunghill, that it might be trampled on by all chriſtians. The pope condemned Wickliffe's doctrines, but would not permit the primate to diſturb his aſhes.

About this time, John Huſs, profeſſor of divinity in the univerſity of Prague, converted to the opinions

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of Wickliffe a great number of his countrymen. The council of Conſtance had reſolved to condemn him unheard, when the emperor of Germany deſired them to liſten to what he had to ſay in his defence. He was accordingly accuſed of hereſy in 39 articles, part of which he denied, and part he offered to defend. But his voice was drowned by the noiſe purpoſely made by the cardinals; and on his refuſing to abjure all the articles, he was immediately declared a hardened heretic, and a ſower of ſedition. As ſuch he was degraded by four biſhops, ſtripped of his ſacerdotal habit, and clothed in a lay dreſs. His hair being cut in the form of a croſs, a paper mitre was put upon his head, painted with the repreſentation of three devils, and he was delivered over to the ſecular judge, who condemned him and his writings to the flames, and fixed the day of his execution. He died with great conſtancy. His friend Jerome ſoon after ſhared the ſame fate.

Great ſtreſs was now laid on pilgrimages, proceſſions, indulgences, confeſſions to prieſts, and their pardons. George Neville, archbiſhop of York, enumerates no fewer than 37 kinds of ſin, which none but the pope or a biſhop could pardon. The firſt and greateſt of theſe ſins was hereſy, and the leaſt, in the eſtimation of the church, was raiſing a ſedition, which endangered a ſtate or city.

CHAP. III.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. A. D. 1399—1485.

THOUGH the conſtitution, government, and laws of England, had not yet arrived at that excellence to which they have ſince attained, they were conſiderably improved in the courſe of this period, and much exceeded thoſe of any other ſtate in Europe. It was ſtill, however, an undiſputed prerogative of the kings of England to preſs, not only ſailors and ſoldiers, but alſo artificers of all kinds, as well as muſicians, goldſmiths, and embroiderers into their ſervice. They likewiſe naturalized foreigners by their own authority.

Philip

Philip de Comines, after describing the disorders that reigned in the governments of France, Germany, and Italy, and the cruel oppressions under which the people of all these countries groaned, concludes in this manner: "In my opinion, of all the states in the world that I know, England is the country where the commonwealth is best governed, and the people least oppressed." May the inhabitants of this island ever enjoy this most desirable of all distinctions!

Some excellent laws for the regulation and encouragement of trade were made, in the reign of Edward IV. who was himself one of the greatest merchants in Europe, and paid great attention to commerce. The statutes of Richard III. were the first that were expressed in the English language, all former ones having been either in Latin or French, which were not understood by the great body of the people, nor even by many of the legislators. These were also the first printed statutes of England.

CHAP. IV.

LITERATURE. A. D. 1399—1485.

THE unsettled state of Britain, France, and some other countries, torn by the most furious factions, and kept in continual agitation by wars and revolutions, was very unfavourable to the progress of literature. For the wars of those times were not carried on by standing armies, as at present, while the rest of the people pursue their several occupations in tranquillity; but persons of all ranks, and even the clergy, were called into the field.

We meet with frequent complaints to parliament, that learning was very little esteemed. All the most valuable livings in the church were bestowed on illiterate men, or foreigners, by papal influence, while the best scholars in the kingdom were left to languish in indigence and obscurity, nay, were sometimes driven to the necessity of begging their bread from door to door, recommended to charity by the chancellors of the

the univerſities in which they had ſtudied. Two of theſe learned mendicants we are told, came to the caſtle of a certain nobleman, who, underſtanding from their credentials that they had a taſte for poetry, commanded his ſervants to take them to a draw-well, and, after putting each of them into a bucket, to let them down alternately into the water, till they ſhould make a couplet of verſes on the buckets. After they had endured this diſcipline for a conſiderable time, to the great entertainment of the baron and his company, they made their verſes, and obtained their liberty.

On the other hand, thoſe who had powerful friends, or abundance of money, though ever ſo ignorant and profligate, ſeldom failed of preferment. "I knew a certain illiterate idiot," ſays a judicious doctor of the 15th century, "the ſon of a mad knight, who, for being the companion, or rather the fool of the ſons of a great family of the royal blood, was made archdeacon of Oxford before he was eighteen years of age; and ſoon after obtained two rich rectories and twelve prebends. I aſked him one day what he thought of learning? As for learning, ſaid he, I deſpiſe it. I have better livings than any of you great doctors, and I believe as much as any of you."

One of the moſt obvious defects in all the authors of this period, is a total want of taſte. The art of criticiſm ſeems to have been quite neglected, and the generality of writers appear to have had no idea of purity of ſtyle, or propriety of ſentiment. When they attempted to be pathetic or ſublime, they always ran into the moſt extravagant bombaſt.

CHAP. V.

THE ARTS. A. D. 1399—1485.

THE ſtyle of ſacred architecture, commonly called the *gothic*, continued to be gradually improved, and in the courſe of this period was brought to the higheſt perfection. Of this lofty, bold, and perfect ſtyle of building, ſeveral ſpecimens remain entire, which

which are ſtill beheld with pleaſure and admiration. Of this kind are the chapel of King's college at Cambridge, the chapel of St. George at Windſor, the divinity ſchool at Oxford, and the college church in Edinburgh.

The changes introduced into the art of war, by the invention of gunpowder, were very ſlow. The martial adventurers of thoſe times were not fond of relinquiſhing the arms to which they had been accuſtomed, and it was difficult to find inſtruments to manage and direct an agent ſo impetuous as gunpowder. Some of their cannons were exceedingly large, and others very ſmall. Some diſcharged balls of 500 pounds weight, and required fifty horſes to draw them, and others were not much heavier than a muſket. Many of the cannon balls were made of ſtone. In 1419, Henry V. gave a commiſſion to John South, clerk of the ordnance, and John Bennet, maſon in Maidſtone, to preſs a ſufficient number of maſons to make 7000 cannon balls, in the quarries of Maidſtone-heath. It is a curious and well-atteſted fact, that the art of diſcharging red-hot balls from cannons was known and practiſed early in this period. When an Engliſh army, commanded by the duke of Glouceſter, beſieged Cherburg, in 1418, the beſieged diſcharged red-hot balls of iron from their cannon into the Engliſh camp, to burn the huts in which the ſoldiers were lodged.

Though great guns were now uſed both in the attack and defence of places, no alterations were yet made in conſtructing and fortifying ſuch places. The prodigious thickneſs and ſolidity of the walls of the Anglo-Norman caſtles, made them appear ſufficiently ſtrong to reſiſt any force with which they could be aſſaulted. The truth is, that the people of England, in this period, were much more employed in beating down than in building. Many large, ſtrong, and magnificent caſtles were demoliſhed or diſmantled during thoſe deſolating civil wars between the houſes of York and Lancaſter, but very few were built. For at the ſame time that theſe caſtles were deſtroyed, their noble

noble proprietors, who might have rebuilt them, were either killed or ruined.

During this period, the excellent art of printing, which hath contributed ſo much to diſpel that darkneſs in which the world was involved, and to diffuſe the light of every ſpecies of knowledge, was invented on the continent, and introduced into this iſland. Laurentius Coſter, keeper of the cathedral of Haerlem, conceived the firſt idea of typography, and printed ſeveral ſmall books in that city, with wooden types tied together with threads. As this art was likely to be very profitable, Laurentius kept the ſecret with great care, and wiſhed to tranſmit it to his family. But this deſign did not ſucceed. For about the time of his death, one of his workmen made his eſcape from Haerlem, carrying with him ſome of his maſter's types, and retired to Mentz, where he began to print with wooden types, being encouraged and ſupplied with money by John Fuſt, a wealthy citizen. His aſſiſtant, John Gutenberg, afterwards invented metal-types, and ſet them in frames; which was ſo great an improvement, that the city of Mentz claimed the honour of being the place where printing was invented. The art was carried to perfection by Peter Schoeffer, who invented the mode of caſting the types in matrices. Frederic Corſellis began to print in Oxford, in 1468, with wooden types; but William Caxton, a mercer of London, claims the honour of being the firſt, who introduced into England the art of printing with fuſile types, in 1474.

CHAP. VI.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES. A. D. 1399—1485.

THOMAS Walſingham, a monk of St. Alban's, was unqueſtionably the beſt of our hiſtorians, during this period. His narrative is more circumſtantial, and ſatisfactory, than that of the other annaliſts of thoſe

thoſe times. He relates, indeed, many ridiculous ſtories of viſions, miracles, and prodigies; but this was the fault of the age rather than of the man.

John Whethamſtede, abbot of St. Alban's, wrote a chronicle of 20 years in this period, which contains many original papers, and gives a very full account of ſome events, particularly of the two battles of St. Alban's. The moſt remarkable circumſtance in the perſonal hiſtory of this writer, is his longevity. He was ordained a prieſt in 1382, and died in 1464, at the advanced age of 105, having been 82 years in prieſt's orders.

The hiſtory of Henry V. was written by an Italian, who took the name of *Titus Livius*. Not meeting with proper encouragement in his own country, he came into England and put himſelf under the protection of Humphrey duke of Glouceſter, who made him his poet-laureat, and perſuaded him to write the hiſtory of the late king, his brother. In his ſtyle, he was a profeſſed, but very unſucceſsful, imitator of the great Roman hiſtorian whoſe name he aſſumed.

All the above-mentioned hiſtories were written in Latin; but *Robert Fœhian*, a merchant and alderman of London, wrote a chronicle of England and France, called, *The Concordance of Stories*, in the Engliſh of his age, which is very intelligible. This work is valuable for its perſpicuity, and for many particulars relating to the city of London.

Though the inns of court and chancery, were crowded with ſtudents of law in this period, ſir Thomas Littleton, and ſir John Forteſcue, were the only gentlemen of that profeſſion, who made a diſtinguiſhed figure as authors.

Sir Thomas Littleton, after receiving a liberal education, was entered of the Inner Temple. His abilities as a lawyer procured him from Henry VI. the place of ſteward of the court, and Edward IV. appointed him one of the judges of the court of common-pleas. He died in 1481, and was interred in the cathedral of Worceſter. He left three ſons, who all became emi-

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nent in the law. It was for the uſe of one of them that he wrote his celebrated *Treatiſe on Tenures*, or titles by which all eſtates were anciently held in England. His third ſon Thomas was knighted by Henry VII. for apprehending Lambert Simnel.

Sir John Forteſcue was the great ornament of his honourable profeſſion, and one of the moſt learned and beſt men of the age in which he flouriſhed. Being appointed chief juſtice of the king's bench, by Henry VI. he ſteadily adhered to that monarch, in all his troubles. His moſt famous work, "De Laudibus Legum Angliæ," yet remains an everlaſting monument of his abilities, and affection for his country. The beſt edition of this book is that of 1741. He died about 1465, in the 90th year of his age.

William Caxton, the firſt Engliſh printer, at the age of 15, was put apprentice to Mr. Robert Large, a mercer, and afterwards mayor of London. On the death of his maſter, who left him a conſiderable legacy, he went abroad, as agent to the mercer's company.

In 1468, a marriage being concluded between lady Margaret of York, ſiſter to Henry VI. and the duke of Burgundy, Caxton appears to have been of the lady's retinue, when ſhe arrived at the duke's court, at Bruges. Here he acquired a knowledge of the newly-diſcovered art of printing, and the firſt book he printed was the *Recuyell of the Hiſtory of Troy*, tranſlated by himſelf from the French, in 1471. But the firſt book printed in England was the *Game of Cheſs*, dated in 1474, for a fair copy of which, the earl of Pembroke preſented Mr. Granger with a purſe of 40 guineas. He died in 1491. The firſt printing-preſs was ſet up in Iſlip's chapel, Weſtminſter abbey, under the patronage of the abbot.

James I. of Scotland, was one of the moſt learned men of the age in which he lived. This ingenious and amiable prince fell into the hands of the enemies of his country, when he was flying from the ſnares of his ambitious uncle, who governed his dominions, and was ſuſpected of deſigns againſt his life. Henry V. of

of England knew the value of the prize he had obtained, and kept it with the moſt anxious care. King James was 13 years of age when he loſt his liberty, and was kept in cloſe confinement till he was about twenty-ſix. In this melancholy ſituation, ſo unſuitable to his age and rank, books were his chief companions, and ſtudy his greateſt pleaſure. Having received a good education in early youth, under the direction of Wardlaw, biſhop of St. Andrew's, by his future intenſe application, he became an univerſal ſcholar, an excellent poet, and an exquiſite muſician. He invented a new kind of muſic, plaintive and melancholy, but at the ſame time ſo ſweet and ſoothing, that it hath given pleaſure to millions in every ſucceeding age. Three of his poems are ſtill extant, namely, *Chriſt's Kirk of the Green*, *Peebles to the Play*, and the *King's Quair*, which afford ſufficient evidence, that the genius of this royal poet was equally fitted for the gayeſt or the graveſt ſtrains.

CHAP. VII.

COMMERCE, AND MARITIME AFFAIRS. A. D. 1399—1485.

THOUGH the Engliſh, in this period, were much engaged in war, and conſequently could not carry on trade with the ſame eaſe and ſafety as in more peaceable times, the circle of their commerce was rather enlarged than contracted. Foreign trade was not then conducted, as it is at preſent. Merchants did not uſually bring their goods to the ports, where they were to be finally diſpoſed of, but to certain emporia, called ſtaple towns, in which they met with cuſtomers from the countries where their goods were wanted, and with the commodities they wiſhed to purchaſe for importation. This ſeems to have been owing to the imperfect ſtate of navigation, which made long voyages tedious, and to the number of pirates, which made them dangerous.

rous. Merchants, therefore, of diſtant countries, divided the fatigue and danger, and met each other half-way. Bruges in Flanders was the great emporium of Europe in this period, to which the merchants of the ſouth and north conveyed their goods for ſale; and ſo great was their reſort to it from the Mediterranean and the Baltic, that 150 ſhips were ſeen to arrive at its harbour of Sluys in one day.

The heroic Henry V. was as victorious by ſea as by land, and in his reign the fleets of England rode triumphant on the narrow ſeas. None of the kings of England before him had any ſhips that were private property. At his firſt invaſion of France, he had two large and beautiful ſhips, with purple ſails, the one called the *King's Chamber*, the other his *Hall*. Edward IV. paid great attention to mercantile and maritime affairs, and ſometimes collected very great fleets. The reign of Richard III. was ſo ſhort and turbulent, that he had little opportunity of ſhewing his attention to the dominion of the ſea. It is, however, certain, that if he had guarded the narrow ſeas with greater care, he might have prevented the landing of his rival, the earl of Richmond, and preſerved both his life and his crown.

Some attempts were now made to build ſhips of greater burden than thoſe of the former period, in imitation of the carracks of Venice and Genoa, which were often ſeen in the Britiſh harbour. But theſe attempts were very few, as they are mentioned by our hiſtorians with expreſſions of admiration. A gentleman of Hull obtained various privileges and immunities from Henry VI. "*becauſe he had built a ſhip as large as a carrack;*" and James Kennedy, the patriotic biſhop of St. Andrew's, is as much celebrated for building a ſhip of uncommon magnitude, called the *Biſhop's Barge*, as for building and endowing a college.

The new coins of this period were nobles and angels, worth 19s. and 14s. of our preſent money. They were much admired both at home and abroad, for their purity and beauty.—In the firſt parliament of James III.

III. of Scotland, an act was made for coining copper-money, "*for the uſe and ſupport of the king's ſubjects, and to be given as alms to the poor.*"

CHAP. VIII.

MANNERS. A. D. 1399—1485.

CHIVALRY, one of the moſt remarkable peculiarities in the manners of the middle ages, began to decline in the 15th century. Our kings and nobles were then ſo much engaged in real combats, that they could not pay equal attention to the repreſentations of them in tilts and tournaments.

The bravery and martial order of both the Britiſh nations never appeared more conſpicuous than in this period, particularly in the reign of Henry V. The Engliſh under that heroic prince ſeemed to be invincible, and fought with ſo much courage and ſucceſs, that, towards the end of his reign, they had a probable proſpect of making a complete conqueſt of France. The Scots were much admired for intrepidity in their own defence, and for the ſeaſonable ſuccours which they ſent to their ancient allies, in their greateſt diſtreſs, when they were on the brink of ruin, and forſaken by all the world.

The hoſpitality of all ranks, but particularly of the great and opulent, was now very remarkable. The caſtles of the powerful barons were capacious palaces, daily crowded with their numerous retainers, who were always welcome to their plentiful tables. "Neville, earl of Warwick," ſays Stow, "was ever held in great favor by the commons of the land, on account of his hoſpitality in all places wherever he went; and when he came to London, he kept ſuch an houſe, that ſix oxen were eaten at a breakfaſt, and every tavern was full of his meat." The earls of Douglas in Scotland, before the fall of that great family, rivalled, or rather exceeded their ſovereigns in pomp and profuſe hoſpitality.

lity. But to this manner of living, it is highly probable, theſe great chieftains were prompted, not ſo much by the innate generoſity of their tempers, as by a deſire of increaſing the number and attachment of their retainers, on which, in thoſe turbulent times, their dignity, and even their ſafety depended. Though theſe retainers did not conſtantly reſide in the families of their lords, they wore their liveries and badges, feaſted in their halls, ſwelled their retinues on all great ſolemnities, attended them on their journies, and followed them into the field of battle. Some powerful chieftains had ſo great a number of theſe retainers at their command, that they ſet the laws at defiance, were formidable to their ſovereigns, and terrible to their fellow-ſubjects.

The entertainments of the barons were conducted with much formal pomp and ſtatelineſs, but not with equal delicacy and cleanlineſs. The lord of the manſion ſat in ſtate, in his great chamber, at the head of his long clumſy oaken board, and his gueſts were ſeated on each ſide, on long benches, according to their rank. The table was loaded with capacious pewter diſhes of meat, veniſon, poultry, ſea-fowls, wild-fowls, game, and fiſh, dreſſed in different ways according to the faſhion of the times. The ſideboards were plentifully furniſhed with ale, beer, and wines, which were handed to the company, in pewter and wooden cups, by the grooms, yeomen, and waiters of the chamber, ranged in regular order. As they ſat down to table at ten o'clock in the morning, and did not riſe from it till one, three of the beſt hours of the day were conſumed in gormandizing.

It was now become the cuſtom in great families to have four meals a-day, viz. breakfaſts, dinners, ſuppers, and *liveries*, the laſt of which was a collation of cakes and mulled wine in their bed-chambers, juſt before they went to reſt. As our anceſtors were ſtill early riſers, they breakfaſted at ſeven, dined at ten, ſupped at four, and had their liveries between eight and nine. But though their morning repaſt was early,

their appetites ſeem to have been ſufficiently keen. An earl and his counteſs had for breakfaſt, "two loaves of bread, a quart of beer, a quart of wine, two pieces of ſalt fiſh, ſix baconed herrings, four white herrings, or a diſh of ſproits." * It is remarkable, that ſhopkeepers, mechanics, and labourers, breakfaſted at eight, dined at noon, and ſupped at ſix, which were later hours than thoſe of the nobility. So different are the cuſtoms of one age from thoſe of another.

But in the courſe of a few centuries what wonderful alterations are produced! If Henry V. were now to riſe from the dead, and appear in the ſtreets of London, mounted on his war-horſe, and clothed in complete armour, what aſtoniſhment would he excite in the admiring multitude! How much would he be ſurpriſed at every object around him! If he were conducted to St. Paul's, he would neither know the church, nor underſtand the ſervice. In ſhort, he would ſuppoſe himſelf to be in a city, and among a people, he had never ſeen.

The Engliſh were remarkable in this period, among the nations of Europe, for the abſurd practice of ſwearing in converſation. The count of Luxemburg, accompanied by the earls of Warwick and Stafford, viſited the Maid of Orleans in her priſon at Rouen, where ſhe was chained to the floor, and loaded with irons. The count, who had ſold her to the Engliſh, pretended he had come to treat with her about her ranſom. Viewing him with juſt reſentment and diſdain, ſhe cried, "*Begone!* You have neither the inclination nor the power to ranſom me." Then turning her eyes towards the two earls, ſhe ſaid, "I know that you Engliſh are determined to put me to death, and imagine, that after I am dead, you will conquer France. But though there were an hundred thouſand of your *ſwearing countrymen* in France, they will never conquer that kingdom." A contemporary hiſtorian, who had frequently converſed with Henry VI. men-

* Northumberland Family-book.

tions

tions it as a commendable ſingularity in his character, that he did not ſwear in common converſation, but reproved his miniſters, and officers of ſtate, for ſo odious an habit, now almoſt univerſally reprobated, and quite baniſhed from every polite company.

CHAP. IX.

INCIDENTS AND CURIOUS PARTICULARS. A. D. 1399—1485.

IN the reign of Henry VI. we have the firſt inſtance of debt contracted upon parliamentary ſecurity. The commencement of this pernicious practice deſerves to be noted, as it is more likely to become pernicious, the more a nation advances in opulence and credit. The ruinous effects of it are now become too apparent, and threaten the very exiſtence of the nation.

Playing-cards were invented, about the end of the fourteenth century, by a painter in Paris, for the amuſement of that unhappy prince, Charles VI. in his lucid intervals. They were originally very different in their appearance from what they are at preſent, being gilded, and illuminated, which required no little ſkill and genius, as well as labour. The price of one pack was no leſs than 18s. 8d. a very conſiderable ſum in thoſe times. This is the reaſon that playing-cards were little known or uſed, for many years after they were invented.

During this period, the number of judges in the courts at Weſtminſter was not fixed, as, in the reign of Henry VI. There were ſometimes ſix, ſeven, or eight judges, in the court of common pleas. The ancient ſalaries of theſe judges were very ſmall. The chief juſtices of the king's bench and common pleas had each of them only 40l. a year, and the other judges 30l. till Henry VI. by letters-patent, granted to the former 160l. and to the latter 100l. Beſides theſe ſalaries,

every judge had a certain quantity of ſilk, linen cloth, and furs, for his ſummer and winter robes, out of the royal wardrobe, or an equivalent in money. The annual ſalary of the attorney-general was only 10l. equivalent to 150l. at preſent. When a judge was admitted into his office, he took a ſolemn oath, "that he would not receive any fee, penſion, gift, reward, or bribe of any man having a ſuit or plea before him, except meat and drink, which ſhould be of no great value."

In 1454, the air-pump was invented by Otto Guerick, a German. The ſame year, the univerſity of Glaſgow, in Scotland, was founded, and that of Aberdeen, about 20 years afterwards.

BOOK VI.

CHAP. I.

MILITARY HISTORY FROM THE ACCESSION OF HENRY VII. IN 1485, TO THE ACCESSION OF EDWARD VI. IN 1547.

HENRY VII. the firſt prince of the houſe of Tudor, aſcended the throne of England, in conſequence of the victory at Boſworth, and the death of Richard III. His title was confirmed by the parliament, his merit was known, and his marriage with the princeſs Elizabeth, eldeſt daughter of Edward IV. united the jarring claims of the houſes of York and Lancaſter, and ſeemed to give univerſal ſatisfaction to the nation. He had therefore every reaſon to promiſe himſelf peace and ſecurity.

But Henry, though in many reſpects a prudent and politic prince, had unhappily imbibed a violent antipathy againſt the adherents of the houſe of York, which neither time nor experience could efface. Inſtead of embracing the preſent favourable opportunity of aboliſhing party diſtinction, by beſtowing his ſmile indiſcriminately on the friends of both families, he carried to the throne all the partialities that belong to the head of a faction. To exalt the Lancaſtrian party, and depreſs the retainers of the houſe of York, were ſtill the favourite ideas of his mind.

When his marriage was celebrated at London, it inſpired more univerſal joy, than either his firſt entry or his coronation. Henry remarked with much diſpleaſure this general favour to the houſe of York. The ſuſpicions which aroſe from it, not only diſturbed the

public tranquillity during his whole reign, but was the cauſe of much uneaſineſs to his amiable cōnſort, and poiſoned all his domeſtic enjoyments.

He confined in the Tower Edward Plantagenet, earl of Warwick, ſon of the duke of Clarence. This unhappy prince had been formerly detained, in a like confinement, at Sheriff-Hutton, in Yorkſhire, by the jealouſy of his uncle Richard. A compariſon was drawn between Henry and that tyrant; and as the tower was the place where Edward's children had been murdered, a fate not more gentle was feared for Warwick. While the compaſſion of the nation was thus turned towards youth and innocence, expoſed to oppreſſion, a report was ſpread, that Warwick had made his eſcape. A general joy communicated itſelf from face to face, and many ſeemed deſirous to join him. Such a favourable opportunity was not neglected by the enemies of Henry's government.

One Richard Simon, a prieſt of Oxford, and a zealous partizan of the houſe of York, attempted to gratify the popular wiſh by holding up an impoſtor to the nation. For this purpoſe he caſt his eyes upon Lambert Simnel, a baker's ſon, who being endowed with underſtanding beyond his years, and addreſs above his condition, ſeemed well calculated to perſonate a prince of royal extraction. This youth, who was inſtructed to aſſume the name and character of the earl of Warwick, ſoon appeared ſo perfect in ſo many particulars, that the queen-dowager was ſuppoſed to have given him a leſſon.

But Simon being ſenſible, that the impoſture would not bear a cloſe inſpection, thought proper to open the firſt public ſcene of it in Ireland, as that iſland was zealouſly attached to the houſe of York.

When this intelligence was conveyed to the king, it reduced him to ſome perplexity. Among other meaſures to oppoſe the effects of it, he ordered Warwick to be taken from the tower, and after being led in proceſſion through the ſtreets of London, to be expoſed to the view of the people at St. Paul's. But this expedient

pedient proved effectual only in England. For Simnel being joined by the earl of Lincoln and Lord Lovel, and ſupported by a body of German troops, furniſhed by Margaret, widow of Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, and ſiſter of Edward IV. landed at Foudrey, in Lancaſhire, and advanced towards Coventry.

Henry, who was not ignorant of theſe movements, levied troops in different parts of the kingdom, and put them under the command of the duke of Bedford. The rebels had entertained hopes that the diſaffected counties in the north would riſe in their favour; but the people in general, averſe to join Iriſh and German invaders, either remained in tranquillity, or gave aſſiſtance to the royal army. The earl of Lincoln, therefore, who commanded the rebels, finding no hopes but in victory, was determined to bring the matter to a ſpeedy deciſion. The hoſtile armies met at Stoke, in the county of Nottingham, where a bloody battle was fought, in which lord Lincoln loſt his life; and as Lovel was never heard of more, he was believed to have undergone the ſame fate. Simnel and his tutor Simon were taken priſoners. The latter, being a prieſt, was not tried at law, but only committed to cloſe cuſtody. And Simnel, who was too contemptible to be an object either of apprehenſion or reſentment to Henry, was made a ſcullion in the king's kitchen, and afterwards advanced to the rank of a falconer.

After encountering and ſurmounting many difficulties both in France and Ireland, Henry was attacked in the poſſeſſion of his throne by an adverſary, who gave him a great deal of trouble. The ducheſs of Burgundy, full of reſentment for the depreſſion of her family and partizans, and rather irritated than diſcouraged by her ill ſucceſs in Simnel's enterpriſe, propagated a report, by means of her emiſſaries, that her nephew, Richard Plantagenet, duke of York, had eſcaped from the tower, when his elder brother was murdered, and ſtill lay ſomewhere concealed. Having proceeded thus far, ſhe got one Perkin Warbeck, the

ſon of a renegado Jew, to perſonate him. This young man was born in London, during the time of Edward IV. and from the reſemblance he bore to that monarch, may have owed his birth to one of Edward's amorous adventures. This ſimilitude, together with a natural verſatility, and ſagacity of genius, aided by a courtly addreſs, rendered him a proper ſubject for the purpoſe of the ducheſs.

Ireland, which ſtill retained its attachment to the houſe of York, was likewiſe choſen as a proper place for Perkin's appearance. He therefore landed at Corke, and aſſuming the name of Richard Plantagenet, drew to him many partizans. The king of France now ſent for him, and received him with all the marks of regard due to the duke of York. From thence he went to the court of the ducheſs of Burgundy, who, after a pretended ſcrutiny into his pretenſions, embraced him as her nephew, and on all occaſions honoured him with the appellation of *The White Roſe of England*. Not only the populace gave credit to Perkin's pretenſions, but men of the higheſt birth and quality, diſguſted at Henry's government, began to turn their eyes towards the new claimant, and a correſpondence was ſettled between the malcontents in Flanders and thoſe in England.

The king was informed of all theſe particulars, but, agreeable to his character, proceeded deliberately in counteracting the projects of his enemies. Having at length, by means of ſpies, diſcovered the whole plan of the confederacy, together with the pedigree, adventures, life, and converſation, of the pretended duke of York, he publiſhed the latter part of the ſtory for the ſatisfaction of the nation.

As Perkin now found that the king's authority daily gained ground among the people, and that his own pretenſions were becoming obſolete, he reſolved to attempt ſomething, which might revive the hopes of his partizans. He accordingly endeavoured to land in Kent, with 600 men, when he was repulſed. Some time after, he went to Scotland, and preſented himſelf

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to James IV. who, seduced by the story of his birth and adventures, gave him in marriage his own relation, lady Catharine Gordon, daughter of the earl of Huntley, eminent for her virtue as well as her beauty. And, as there subsisted at this time a great jealousy between the courts of England and Scotland, he determined to support his pretended claim, and invaded England with a considerable force. Finding, however, that Perkin's pretensions were but little regarded, and that a formidable army was on its march to oppose him, he retreated into his own country.

The chief concern of Henry was to draw advantage from this irruption, by the pretence it might afford him to levy impositions on his own subjects. He summoned a parliament, who, upon his representations, readily granted him a large subsidy. But he found it not so easy to collect the money from his subjects. The people, who were well acquainted with the immense treasures he had amassed, could ill brook the new impositions, raised on every slight occasion. The inhabitants of Cornwall, excited by one Michael Joseph, a farrier of Bodmin, and Thomas Flammoc, a lawyer, armed themselves with such weapons as country people are usually possessed of, and marched towards London, in order to deliver a petition to the king for a redress of grievances. When they reached Wells, they were joined by lord Audley, a nobleman of an ancient family, and popular in his deportment; but vain, ambitious, and restless in his temper. Proud of the countenance of so considerable a person, they marched on, till they arrived at Eltham, near London, and there encamped. But having received no reinforcements on the road, they were easily overcome by a body of forces sent against them under the command of the earl of Oxford. Lord Audley, Flammoc, and Joseph, their leaders, were taken and executed.

During these commotions in England, Perkin remained in Scotland; but James finding he should never enjoy a solid peace with Henry, while that pretender was in his dominions, privately desired him to depart

depart the kingdom. By the kind manner, however, in which he entertained and diſmiſſed him, it is evident that he believed him to be the real duke of York, eſpecially as he refuſed to deliver up his perſon, which he might have done with honour, had he thought him an impoſtor. Perkin, after various unfortunate adventures fell into Henry's hands, and was ſhut up in the Tower of London, from whence he endeavoured to eſcape along with the innocent earl of Warwick, for which Perkin was hanged, and the earl beheaded.

In 1499, the king had the ſatisfaction of completing a marriage between his ſon Arthur prince of Wales, and the infanta Catherine, fourth daughter of Ferdinand and Iſabella of Spain. The young prince, however, in the courſe of a few months, ſickened and died, much regretted by the nation. Henry, deſirous of continuing his alliance with Spain, and alſo unwilling to reſtore Catherine's dowry, obliged his ſecond ſon, Henry, to be contracted to the infanta. His eldeſt daughter, the princeſs Margaret, was ſoon after ſent with a magnificent train to Scotland, where ſhe was married to James IV.

The ſituation of the king's affairs, both at home and abroad, was now, in every reſpect, very fortunate. Uncontrouled, therefore, by oppoſition of any kind, he gave full ſcope to his natural propenſity; and avarice, which had ever been his ruling paſſion, broke through all reſtraints of ſhame and juſtice. He had found two miniſters, Empſon and Dudley, perfectly qualified to ſecond his rapacious and tyrannical inclinations, and to prey upon his defenceleſs people: Arbitrary decrees were iſſued without trial or jury, and the laws were turned into a ſyſtem of oppreſſion.

In 1508, Henry entertained ſome intentions of marriage, firſt with the queen dowager of Naples, relict of Ferdinand, and afterwards with the ducheſs-dowager of Savoy, daughter of the emperor Maximilian. But the decline of his health put an end to all ſuch thoughts, and he began to caſt his eyes towards that future exiſtence, which the iniquities and ſeverities of

his reign rendered a very diſmal proſpect to him. To allay the terrors under which he laboured, he endeavoured, by diſtributing alms, and founding religious houſes, to make atonement for his crimes, and to purchaſe, by the ſacrifice of part of his ill-gotten treaſures, a reconciliation with his offended Maker. Remorſe ſeized him, at intervals, for the abuſe of his authority by Empſon and Dudley; but not ſufficient to make him ſtop the rapacious hand of thoſe oppreſſors.

Death, however, by its nearer approaches, impreſſed new terrors upon him, when he ordered, by a general clauſe in his will, that reſtitution ſhould be made to all whom he had injured. He died of a conſumption, at his favourite palace of Richmond, in the 52d year of his age, and the 24th of his reign. His capacity was excellent, but ſomewhat contracted by the narrowneſs of his heart. He poſſeſſed inſinuation and addreſs, but never employed theſe talents, except where ſome great point of intereſt was to be gained; and he remains a ſingular inſtance of a man placed in a high ſtation, and poſſeſſed of talents for great affairs, in whom avarice was more predominant than ambition. Even among private perſons, this paſſion is often nothing but a ſpecies of ambition, and is chiefly incited by the proſpect of that reſpect and diſtinction, which riches procure. A. D. 1509.

The acceſſion of Henry VIII. now eighteen years of age, gave univerſal ſatisfaction. The beauty and vigour of his perſon, accompanied with dexterity in every manly exerciſe, added to a knowledge of literature far beyond his age, gave promiſing hopes of his becoming the idol of the people. And as the contending titles of York and Lancaſter were now at laſt fully united in his perſon, men juſtly expected from a prince, obnoxious to no party, that impartiality of adminiſtration which had long been unknown in England.

The young king being naturally of a laviſh diſpoſition, the great treaſures amaſſed by his father were gradually diſſipated in pleaſure and amuſements.

During the intermiſſion of his feſtivity, he chiefly applied himſelf to muſic and literature, in the former of which he was a great proficient.

As the frank and careleſs diſpoſition of the king led him to diſſipate his father's wealth, ſo it rendered him negligent in protecting the inſtruments of his extortion. All thoſe informers, therefore, who had ſo long exerciſed an unbounded tyranny over the nation, met with their deſerts, being condemned to the pillory, where many of them loſt their lives by the violence of the populace. Empſon and Dudley, who were moſt obnoxious to the popular hatred, were ſent to the Tower, and ſoon after executed.

Henry ſoon got a miniſter who complied with all his inclinations, and flattered him in every ſcheme to which his impetuous temper was inclined. This was Thomas Wolſey, dean of Lincoln, now almoner to the king, and faſt advancing through Henry's favour, towards that unrivalled grandeur, which he afterwards attained. He was the ſon of a butcher at Ipſwich, but having received a learned education, and being endowed with an excellent capacity, he was employed by Henry VII. in ſome ſecret negociations, in which he acquitted himſelf ſo much to his ſatisfaction, that he obtained his favour. Some time after the acceſſion of Henry VIII. Fox, biſhop of Wincheſter, caſt his eyes upon him, as a proper perſon to ſupplant, in the royal favour, the earl of Surry, of whoſe ſuperiority he was jealous. For this purpoſe, he introduced Wolſey to the young king, who in a little time gained ſo much on him, that he ſupplanted both. Being admitted into Henry's parties of pleaſure, he took the lead in every gaiety; nor were his years, which were near forty, nor his character as a clergyman, any reſtraint upon him. Henry having found a perſon ſo agreeable to him, advanced Wolſey from being the companion of his pleaſures, to be a member of his council, and from being a member of his council, to be his ſole and abſolute miniſter. By this rapid advancement and un-

controuled authority, his character and genius had full opportunity to diſplay themſelves.

Encouraged by Wolſey, and impelled by his natural temper, Henry made the moſt expenſive preparations by ſea and land to invade France, when he ſailed for Calais, attended by the duke of Buckingham, and other noblemen. The town of Teroüane, A. D. 1513. ſituated on the frontiers of Picardy, being beſieged, the French endeavoured to throw ſuccours into the place. Henry, as ſoon as he received intelligence of the approach of the French cavalry, ſent ſome troops to oppoſe them; when, notwithſtanding they chiefly conſiſted of gentlemen who had behaved with great gallantry in many deſperate actions, they precipitately fled upon the approach of the Engliſh. They were purſued, and many officers of diſtinction made priſoners, among whom was the famous chevalier Bayard; and from this haſty flight of the French, the action was called, the *battle of ſpurs*.

After ſo conſiderable an advantage, the king, who was at the head of above 50,000 men, might have made incurſions to the gates of Paris. Scarcely ever was the French monarchy in greater danger, or leſs in a condition to defend itſelf againſt the powerful armies which aſſailed it on every ſide. But Lewis was extricated from his preſent difficulties by the blunders of his enemies; and Henry, after taking Tournay, returned to England, much elated with his ſucceſs. But when the advantages of his ſituation are compared with his progreſs, and his expence with his acquiſitions, this campaign, ſo much boaſted of, was, in reality, both ruinous and inglorious to him.

The Scots having now made an incurſion into England, the earl of Surry marched to oppoſe them, and a battle enſued at Flodden-field, wherein the king of Scotland, and moſt of his chief nobles were ſlain. But inſtead of taking advantage of this defeat, and reducing the kingdom to his ſubjection, as he might have done, Henry generouſly granted a peace to his ſiſter Margaret, who was appointed regent during the minority

minority of her ſon. He likewiſe made peace with Lewis, king of France, and beſtowed on him his ſiſter Mary in marriage.

Henry became a candidate for the German empire, during its vacancy, but ſoon reſigned his pretenſions to Francis I. of France, and Charles of Auſtria, king of Spain, who was elected in 1519. His conduct, in the long and bloody wars between thoſe princes, was directed by Wolſey's views upon the popedom, which he hoped to gain by the intereſt of Charles; but finding himſelf twice deceived, he perſuaded his maſter to declare for Francis, who had been taken priſoner at the battle of Pavia. Henry, however, continued to be the dupe of both parties, and to pay great part of their expences, till at laſt he was obliged to impoſe heavy burthens on his ſubjects.

Henry ſtill continuing to be a great enemy to the Reformation, was the champion of the popes and of the Romiſh church. He wrote a book againſt Luther, "*Of the Seuen Sacraments*," for which the pope gave him and his ſucceſſors the title of *Defender of the Faith*. In the year 1527, however, he began to have ſome ſcruples with regard to the validity of his marriage with Catherine of Arragon, his brother's widow. Anna Boleyn, having been lately appointed maid of honour to the queen, had, from being frequently ſeen by Henry, and converſing with him, acquired an aſcendant over his affections. This young lady, whoſe grandeur and misfortunes have rendered her ſo celebrated, was daughter of ſir Thomas Boleyn, and allied to the principal nobility in the kingdom. She had been carried over to France, in her early youth, by the king's ſiſter, when that princeſs eſpouſed Lewis the twelfth, and had continued there a conſiderable time after her death. As Henry ſtill ſupported an intercourſe of civility and friendſhip with his queen, he had opportunities, in the viſits he paid her, to obſerve the charms of Anna Boleyn. Finding the accompliſhments of her mind in no degree inferior to her exterior graces, he reſolved to raiſe her to the throne, as her

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virtue and modeſty prevented all hopes of gratifying his paſſions in any other manner. Having therefore divorced Catherine, he married the object of his affections, and was ſoon after excommunicated by the pope.

Enraged at this treatment, Henry aboliſhed the papal authority in England, refuſed to pay to the ſee of Rome his annual tribute, ordered the diſſolution of monaſteries, and obliged the clergy, as well as others, to acknowledge him head of the church, when thoſe who refuſed were either baniſhed or put to death. Among theſe laſt were, the learned ſir Thomas More, lord chancellor of England, and Fiſher, biſhop of Rocheſter. Cardinal Wolſey too having, on this occaſion, incurred the king's diſpleaſure, was deprived of his immenſe power and poſſeſſions, and died of a broken heart. "Had I but ſerved my God," ſaid he, "as diligently as I have ſerved my prince, he would not have forſaken me in the days of my grey hairs."

Out of the produce of the monaſtic revenues, which amounted to 160,000l. Henry erected ſix new biſhopricks, viz. Weſtminſter, Oxford, Peterborough, Briſtol, Cheſter, and Glouceſter, of which five ſtill ſubſiſt.

Anna Boleyn, however, ſoon loſt the king's favour. His affection for her, no longer kept alive by difficulties, languiſhed from ſatiety. He had beſides become enamoured of Jane, daughter of Sir John Seymour, a young lady of ſingular beauty and merit. Queen Anna's enemies took advantage of this change, and did every thing in their power to widen the breach. She was accuſed of holding a criminal correſpondence with ſeveral gentlemen of the king's chamber, and being tried by a jury of peers, though there was no proof of criminality, but that her indiſcretions proceeded from a pardonable gaiety of character, ſhe was found guilty, and condemned to loſe her head. The ſuppoſed partakers of her guilt were likewiſe executed.

Henry's impatience to gratify this new paſſion made him forget all regard to decency, and he married Jane Seymour the very day after Anna Boleyn's execution. Having ſoon after called a parliament, he made a ſpeech wherein

wherein he informed them, that notwithstanding the misfortunes attending his two former marriages, he had been induced, for the good of his people, to venture on the third. Being entirely at Henry's devotion, they ratified his divorce from Anna Boleyn, which he had procured before her death.

Jane Seymour, the most beloved of his wives, dying in child-bed of prince Edward, Henry began to think of a new marriage. Having turned his thoughts towards several princesses, he was persuaded by Cromwell to espouse Anne of Cleves, whose father, the duke of that name, had great interest among the Lutheran princes, with whom he wished to form an alliance. A flattering likeness by Hans Holben had given Henry a favourable opinion of the person of this princess, about which he was very particular; but the first sight of her inspired him with great disgust. His aversion to her increasing every day, prompted him at once to seek the dissolution of a marriage so odious to him, and to involve his minister in ruin, who had been the innocent author of it. Accordingly he obtained a divorce, and suffered her to reside in England on a pension of 3000l. a year.

His fifth wife was Catherine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whom he caused to be beheaded, because he had conceived a violent passion for Catharine Parr, a young widow of great beauty, whom he married, and who narrowly escaped being brought to the stake for her religious opinions, which favoured the reformation. Henry's cruelty increased with his years, and was now exercised promiscuously on Protestants and Catholics. He put to death the brave earl of Surry, though no crime was proved against him; and his father, the duke of Norfolk, must have suffered the next day, had he not been saved by the king's own death. His health had long been in a declining state; but for several days, all near him plainly saw his end approaching. He was become so froward, that no one durst inform him of his condition. At last, Sir Anthony Denny ventured to disclose to him the fatal secret,

ſecret, and exhorted him to prepare for the fate that awaited him. Henry expreſſed his reſignation, and directed that Cranmer ſhould be ſent for; but before the prelate arrived he was ſpeechleſs, though he ſtill ſeemed to retain his ſenſes. Cranmer deſired him to give ſome ſign of his dying in the faith of Chriſt. He ſqueezed the prelate's hand, and immediately expired, in the 56th year of his age, after a reign of thirty-ſeven years and nine months. A few weeks before his demiſe, he made his will, by which he left his crown, firſt to prince Edward, then to the lady Mary, and next to the lady Elizabeth.

Though a catalogue of this monarch's vices would comprehend many of the worſt qualities incident to human nature, yet he was not altogether deſtitute of virtues. He was open, gallant, liberal, and capable, at leaſt, of a temporary friendſhip and attachment. Notwithſtanding his arbitrary adminiſtration, he was ſo far from being hated by his ſubjects, that he poſſeſſed in ſome degree, even to the laſt, their love and affection. His exterior qualities were advantageous, and fit to captivate the multitude. His magnificence and perſonal bravery rendered him illuſtrious in vulgar eyes. And it may be ſaid with truth, that the Engliſh in that age were ſo thoroughly ſubdued, that, like eaſtern ſlaves, they were inclined to admire thoſe acts of violence and tyranny, which were exerciſed over themſelves, and at their own expence.

CHAP. II.

ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY. A. D. 1485—1547.

DURING the reign of Henry VII. the diſciples of Wickliffe were not, in general, ſo ambitious of the crown of martyrdom, as they had formerly been. When they were accuſed of hereſy, and threatened with the cruel death inflicted on heretics, many of

of them recanted, and burnt their faggot, to preſerve themſelves.

Though the authority of the pope, and the tenets and ceremonies of the church of Rome, ſeemed to be firmly eſtabliſhed in England, at the acceſſion of Henry VIII. the foundations on which they reſted were in ſome degree undermined, and the fabric was not ſo firm as it appeared. The revival of learning, and the invention of the art of printing, made books more attainable, ſo that knowledge became more general, than it had been in former times. This alſo gave an opportunity to perſons of different opinions to communicate their ſentiments to the public, which produced the reformation, one of the greateſt events in hiſtory. A concurrence of incidents contributed to forward this great revolution.

Pope Leo, by his generous and enterpriſing temper, had much exhauſted his treaſury, and was obliged to employ every invention, which might yield money, in order to ſupport his projects, pleaſures, and liberalities. For this purpoſe he publiſhed the ſale of a general indulgence, the ſeveral branches of which were beſtowed on particular perſons, who were entitled to levy the impoſition. The Auguſtine friars had uſually been employed in Saxony to preach the indulgences, and, from this truſt, derived both profit and conſideration. But the perſon to whom they were farmed, being apprehenſive leſt practice had taught them to ſecrete the money, gave this occupation to the Dominicans. The monks, in order to prove themſelves worthy of the diſtinction conferred on them, exaggerated the benefits of indulgences, which were to free the purchaſer from the pains of purgatory, and advanced doctrines relative to them altogether new. To add to the ſcandal, the collectors were ſaid to have lived the moſt licentious lives.

Martin Luther, an Auguſtine friar, profeſſor in the univerſity of Wittemberg, reſenting the affront put upon his order, began to preach againſt theſe abuſes, and even to queſtion the authority of the pope. As he enlarged his reading, in order to ſupport his tenets,

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he diſcovered ſome new abuſe or error in the church of Rome; and finding his opinions greedily hearkened to, he promulgated them by writing, diſcourſe, ſermons, and conferences.

The rumour of theſe innovations ſoon reached England, and as there were ſtill in the kingdom great numbers of Wickliffites, whoſe principles reſembled thoſe of Luther, the new doctrines ſecretly gained many partizans among the laity. But Henry, who had been educated in a ſtrict attachment to the church of Rome, and bore a particular prejudice againſt Luther, becauſe in his writings he had ſpoken with contempt of Thomas Aquinas, his favourite author, oppoſed his authority againſt the new tenets. He procured, indeed, an act of parliament confirming to him the eccleſiaſtical ſupremacy, which he had claimed about three years before. Having fixed himſelf head of the Engliſh and Iriſh churches, inſtead of the pope, whoſe juriſdiction he aboliſhed, Henry likewiſe took proper methods to diminiſh the influence of the clergy. The monaſteries were ſuppreſſed, and their revenues applied to other purpoſes. But the doctrines and ceremonies of Rome were, in great meaſure, retained. Hence Papiſts and Proteſtants were ſometimes executed together, the former for denying the king's ſupremacy, and the latter for not believing tranſubſtantiation, or the like.

Cromwell, earl of Eſſex, though not conſcious of guilt, nor apprehenſive of danger, being ſeized and committed to the tower, was attainted by an act of parliament for hereſy and high treaſon, without being heard, and beheaded on Tower-hill. This great man was hardly laid in his grave, when three of the moſt learned and zealous preachers of the reformed doctrine were burnt in Smithfield. Three papiſts, who had been found guilty of treaſon for denying the king's ſupremacy, were hanged, drawn, and quartered, at the ſame time and place: which made a foreigner, who was a ſpectator of this horrid ſcene, cry out, "Good God! how unhappy are the people of this country, who

who are hanged for being papists, or burnt for being enemies to popery."

Henry laboured the point of uniformity with uncommon ardour, and seems to have determined that none of his subjects should think, speak, or act, in matters of religion, but as he directed them. Not contented with dictating a system of doctrines which they were to believe, and of the ceremonies they were to practise in the church, he published a manual of prayers, which he strictly commanded all his subjects to use in their private devotions, prohibiting the use of any other prayers in their closets. This was called *the king's Primer*. Even the most trivial things, relating to religion, were considered as of the greatest consequence. Some of the people, for example, kept St. Mark's day as a fast, and others of them kept it as a feast. He was much offended at this, and published a royal injunction to all his loving subjects, to *eat flesh* on St. Mark's day.

CHAP. III.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT. A. D. 1485—1547.

A GENERAL peace being re-established, soon after the accession of Henry VII. the prospect of happier days seemed to open on the nation. But, as the people were wearied out by the calamities they had undergone, and longed only for repose, they abhorred even the idea of resistance. The nobility were left defenceless, and abandoned to the mercy of the sovereign, while the commons, finding themselves bereft of those who had hitherto been their leaders, were more than ever afraid to form an opposition.

So many noblemen had been killed, executed, and attainted, in the cruel contest between the houses of York and Lancaster, that only 28 temporal peers were summoned to the first parliament of Henry VII. This dimi-

diminution of the number of peers diminiſhed their weight in the ſcale of government; and as that was one object of the policy of Henry VII. he raiſed very few to the peerage.

The time was now arrived, when England muſt ſubmit, in its turn, to the fate of other nations of Europe. All thoſe barriers, which it had raiſed for the defence of its liberty, ſeemed to have only been able to poſtpone the inevitable effects of power. During the reign of Henry VIII. the parliament was ſo little jealous of its privileges (which indeed were at that time ſcarcely worth preſerving,) that there is an inſtance of one Strode, who, becauſe he had introduced into the lower houſe ſome bill regarding tin, was ſeverely treated by the ſtannery courts in Cornwall. Heavy fines were impoſed on him, and upon his refuſal to pay, he was thrown into a dungeon, loaded with irons, and uſed in ſuch a manner as brought his life in danger. Yet all the notice which the parliament took of this enormity, even in ſuch a paltry court, was to enact "that no man could afterwards be queſtioned for his conduct in parliament." This prohibition, however, muſt be ſuppoſed to extend only to the inferior courts. For the king, the privy-council, and the ſtar chamber, were ſcarcely bound by any law.

There is a bill of tonnage, which ſhews what uncertain ideas the parliament had formed both of their own privileges and of the rights of the ſovereign. This duty had been voted to every king ſince Henry IV. during the term of his own life only. Henry VIII. however, had been allowed to levy it ſix years without any law; and though there had been four parliaments aſſembled during that time, no attention had been given either to grant it to him regularly, or reſtrain him from levying it. At laſt the parliament reſolved to give him that ſupply; but even in this conceſſion, they plainly ſhow themſelves at a loſs to determine whether they grant it, or whether he has a right of himſelf to levy it.

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The revenues of the crown, at this time, were very great. The treaſure found in the coffers of Henry VII. was equivalent to 8,000,000l. of our money at preſent. All that wealth, the ordinary and extraordinary revenues of the crown, the tenths and firſt fruits from the clergy, which had been formerly paid to the pope, together with the ineſtimable ſpoils of all the religious houſes in England, whoſe value almoſt exceeded the bounds of calculation, came into the poſſeſſion of Henry VIII. Had theſe revenues been well managed, they might have made the crown independent of the country, and enabled the king to have reigned for a long time without a parliament. But, fortunately for the people of England, Henry diſſipated all thoſe treaſures, died poor, and tranſmitted the crown to his ſon and ſucceſſor, as dependant on the people for their ſupplies in parliament, as at any former period. The wanton profuſion of princes is always hurtful to themſelves, but may prove beneficial to their ſubjects, by preventing greater evils. If Henry had been more frugal, he would have been more dangerous.

With regard to the courts at Weſtminſter, in this monarch's reign, the laws were there baſely perverted, and the moſt ſhocking acts of oppreſſion were perpetrated, under the pretence of puniſhing offences. On what ſlender evidence were the amiable queen Anna Boleyn, and her accompliſhed brother lord Rochford, found guilty of high treaſon, condemned, and executed? On what trivial pretences did the convocation pronounce a ſentence of divorce between Henry and his queen, Anne of Cleves, which was confirmed by parliament? How many noble perſons were found guilty of high treaſon without any trial, by acts of attainder, though they earneſtly intreated to be tried before they were condemned? Was not this a groſs violation of the firſt and plaineſt principles of law and juſtice? Who after this will heſitate to pronounce Henry VIII. a tyrant, and his parliaments the ſervile executioners of his imperious and cruel mandates?

CHAP.

CHAP. IV.

LITERATURE. A. D. 1485—1547.

THE morning of that auſpicious day which ſucceeded the long night of ignorance, in which almoſt all Europe had been involved from the fall of the weſtern empire, had dawned on Italy, and ſome other parts of the continent, before it reached this little ſequeſtered world of Britain. While learning was reviving in ſome other countries, it was languiſhing and declining in this iſland; and the period that immediately preceded the preſent, was here one of the darkeſt and moſt illiterate. In every former period, ſome extraordinary men aroſe, ſuch as the venerable Bede, Alfred the great, Roger Bacon, and doctor Wickliffe, who by the force of their genius and application, diſſipated, in ſome degree, the gloom with which they were ſurrounded, and rendered their names immortal. But in the fifteenth century there were hardly any who deſerved a permanent reputation by their writings.

Our preſent period, however, preſents us with a more agreeable proſpect. A better taſte and greater eſteem for literature were introduced. The countenance given to letters by Henry VIII. and his miniſters, contributed to render learning faſhionable in England. Eraſmus ſpeaks with great ſatisfaction of the general regard paid by the nobility and gentry to men of knowledge.

No province of literature was cultivated with ſo much care and ſucceſs by the revivers of learning in this period, as philology, or the accurate knowledge of languages, particularly of the Latin and Greek claſſics. The neglect into which the works of the philoſophers, poets, and hiſtorians of Greece and Rome had fallen, was one great cauſe of the decline of learning, and of the bad taſte and barbariſm of the middle ages. The revivers of learning, therefore, acted wiſely in beginning

ning its revival, by removing one of the great cauſes of its decline. By acquiring a correct and critical knowledge of the language, ſtyle, and manner of thoſe excellent writers, they obtained two great advantages. They had acceſs to all the ſtores of wiſdom and eloquence, which their writings contained. and to all the pleaſure, which their peruſal could afford; and by imitating ſuch beautiful models, they acquired the art of communicating their own thoughts to the world in a perſpicuous, elegant, and pleaſing manner. In this art ſome of the revivers of learning, both in Britain and on the continent, ſucceeded to admiration, and wrote in Latin with a claſſical purity not unbecoming the Auguſtan age. The ſucceſs and example of thoſe eminent men brought the ſtudy of the Latin language into faſhion. To ſpeak and to write pure and claſſical Latin, was conſidered as a valuable, and even a polite accompliſhment, to which perſons of high rank and of both ſexes aſpired. In order to aſſiſt youth in the acquiſition of this accompliſhment, the greateſt ſcholars of the age, as Eraſmus, Linacre, and many others, did not diſdain to ſpend their time in writing rudiments, grammars, vocabularies, colloquies, and other books. The haughty monarch Henry VIII. and his no leſs haughty miniſter cardinal Wolſey, ſtooped to employ their pens in writing inſtructions to youth, in the ſtudy of this favourite language. The king wrote an introduction to Grammar, and the cardinal compoſed a ſyſtem of inſtructions to be obſerved by the maſters in the ſchool he founded at Ipſwich, his native town. The cardinal had been a ſchoolmaſter, and was well qualified for giving theſe inſtructions, which are equally ſenſible and particular. James IV. of Scotland was an excellent Latin claſſic; and his letters are written with greater purity and elegance than thoſe of any other prince in Europe. In a word, the Roman claſſics were now ſtudied with ſo much diligence, and the capacity of imitating their ſtyle and manner was ſo much valued, that the ſixteenth century may very properly be called *Seculum Latinum*, the Latin age.

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The reſtorers of learning found much greater difficulty in acquiring the knowledge of the Greek language, and in perſuading others that the knowledge of it was either neceſſary or uſeful. That copious and beautiful language, in which ſo many of the philoſophers, poets, hiſtorians, and orators of antiquity had written, was almoſt quite unknown in Britain in the beginning of this period. The celebrated Eraſmus of Rotterdam, the moſt zealous and ſucceſsful reſtorer of learning, came into England in 1497, and went to Oxford with a deſign to teach Greek, but met with little encouragement. Many both of the ſecular and regular clergy declaimed againſt him in the ſchools, and even in the pulpit, with great bitterneſs. They railed particularly againſt his Greek New Teſtament, as a moſt impious and dangerous book. He continued, however, to teach there a conſiderable time, encouraged by a few ingenious men, who gladly received his inſtructions, and afterwards communicated them to others.

Eraſmus beſtows high encomiums on cardinal Wolſey as a patron of letters and learned men. "This extraordinary man," ſays he, "had a genius and taſte for learning, in which he had made great proficiency in his youth, and for which he retained a regard in his higheſt elevation. Polite learning, as yet ſtruggling with the patrons of the ancient ignorance, he upheld by his favour, defended by his authority, adorned by his ſplendour, and cheriſhed by his kindneſs. He invited all the moſt learned profeſſors by his noble ſalaries. In furniſhing libraries with all kinds of authors of good learning, he contended with Ptolemy Philadelphus himſelf, who was more famous for this than for his kingdom. He recalled the three learned languages, without which all learning is lame." When the cardinal viſited Oxford in 1518, he founded ſeven lectures, and choſe the moſt learned men he could procure to read them. He at the ſame time intimated his intention of doing much greater things for the honour of the univerſity and the advancement of learning,

which he executed in part, and, to his unſpeakable ſorrow, was prevented from executing fully, by his unexpected fall.

CHAP. V.

THE ARTS. A. D. 1485—1547.

FROM the acceſſion of the Tudors, and the extinction of thoſe factions that diſtracted England, a period of comparative tranquillity commences. Such repoſe being propitious to arts and commerce, the country recovered from the calamities of internal diſcord, and continued afterwards in a ſtate of ſlow, but progreſſive improvement.

Agriculture and gardening, during the diſtraction of the civil wars, had been much neglected, but were now proſecuted with ſuch ſucceſs, that to the preſent period is aſcribed the introduction of various fruits and vegetables into England. The fruit garden was enriched by large acceſſions from foreign countries, and apricots, melons, and currants were brought from Zante for the firſt time, in the ſixteenth century. In the beginning of the reign of Henry VIII. carrots, turnips, and other edible roots were imported from Holland and Flanders. Queen Catharine, when ſhe wanted a *ſallad*, was obliged to diſpatch a meſſenger thither on purpoſe. The introduction of hops from the Netherlands was ſomewhat earlier, and the culture of them was much encouraged. Flax was attempted, but without ſucceſs, though enforced by law. Legiſlature at that time endeavoured to execute, by means of penalties, thoſe national improvements, which have ſince been foſtered and cheriſhed by bounties.

To the paſſion of the age, and the predilection of the monarch for ſplendid tournaments, may be attributed the attention beſtowed on a breed of horſes, of a ſtrength and nature adapted to the weight of the complicated panoply, with which the knight and his courſer

ſer were inveſted. Statutes of a ſingular nature were enacted, allotting for deer-parks a certain proportion of breeding mares, and enjoining the prelates and nobles, as well as thoſe whoſe *wives wore velvet bonnets*, to have ſtallions of a certain ſize for their ſaddle. The legal ſtandard was fifteen hands in horſes, and thirteen in mares.

There is a certain perfection in art to which human genius may aſpire with ſucceſs, beyond which improvement degenerates into falſe taſte and fantaſtic refinement. The rude ſimplicity of *Saxon architecture* was ſupplanted by the magnificence of the *ornamental* gothic. But magnificence itſelf is at laſt exhauſted, and it terminated, during the preſent period, in a ſtyle, which ſome, in alluſion to literature, denominate the *florid*. The ſuperb chapel, which Henry VII. erected in Weſtminſter, exhauſted every ornament that taſte could dictate, or piety accumulate, and exhibits a ſplendid ſpecimen of gothic architecture in its lateſt period. Grecian architecture was then introduced; but its orders, till a purer taſte prevailed, being intermixed with thoſe of the gothic, produced a diſcordant and barbarous aſſemblage.

After the invention of cannon, the utility of caſtles ceaſed. The king and nobility ſolicited better accommodation, and ſuperior elegance. Hampton court is a ſtanding monument of Wolſey's magnificence. The manſions of gentlemen, however, were ſtill ſordid, and the huts of the peaſantry poor and wretched. The former were generally thatched buildings compoſed of timber, or where wood was ſcarce, of large poſts inſerted in the earth, filled up in the interſtices with rubbiſh, plaiſtered within, and covered on the outſide with coarſe clay. The latter were ſlight frames, prepared in the foreſts at a ſmall expence, and, when erected, covered with mud.

Italy was the ſeat of the *fine arts* in the ſixteenth century. Bramante drew the plan of St. Peter's church at Rome. Michael Angelo erected a cupola upon that magnificent edifice, the boldneſs and taſte of which

ſurpriſe the ſpectator. That ſublime artiſt built ſuperb churches, ſumptuous palaces, and laid out the moſt enchanting gardens. He alſo gave to marble with his chiſſel, ſymmetry, and beauty, and revived the works of Praxiteles and Phidias. Four Italian ſchools were celebrated for painting. Michael Angelo ſhone at Florence. As perfect in the art of painting, as in thoſe of architecture and ſculpture, he gave the canvas a ſtrength of expreſſion, a livelineſs and enthuſiaſm, peculiar to himſelf. His ſcholars imbibed his ſpirit, and did honour to ſo great a maſter. Titian ſhone in the Venetian ſchool, and Corregio in that of Lombardy. But Raphael made the Roman ſchool ſtill more famous. His paintings ſhew a correctneſs of deſign, a richneſs of order, a juſtneſs of expreſſion, and an elevation of ideas, not to be found in the works of any other painter. He bore away the palm, and perhaps he remains without an equal in his art. He formed ſeveral great men, who became his rivals. Flanders had ſome good artiſts. John of Leyden, and Van Horley, are names, not unknown, in the hiſtory of the fine arts. Holben, the ſcholar of Albert Durer, made himſelf celebrated in Germany. Being invited to London, he enriched that city with many excellent pieces of painting. Henry VIII. was his patron and protector. His pencil, among its other employments, pourtrayed the beauties of Henry's wives, or of thoſe whom he intended to wed; and to procure a juſt report of the latter, he was twice diſpatched to the continent as the ſecret emiſſary of the king's love. But he was not always a faithful emiſſary. His pencil, if impartial to the ducheſs of Milan, imparted unmerited charms to Anne of Cleves, and enſnared his maſter into a marriage.

Holben is ſaid to have precipitated down ſtairs a peer who had intruded on him when he was drawing a lady's portrait for the king. The painter ruſhed to Henry and told his tale, which was received with a frown; and he was ordered to the royal cloſet. Next came the peer loudly complaining, and miſrepreſent-

ing the ſtory. But Henry, after reprimanding him for his want of candor, thus addreſſed him. "It is *me*, not Holben, whom you have inſulted. I can make ſeven peaſants into as many lords; but I cannot make one Holben. Begone! and remember that I protect him." The behaviour of Henry, Mr. Walpole obſerves, is the moſt probable part of the anecdote. There are in Kenſington palace eighty-nine fine drawings of this maſter. Before he ſet out to England, the people of Baſil, enchanted with a fly which Holben had drawn on a portrait ſo naturally, that many attempted to bruſh it off, endeavoured in vain to detain him.

Poetry was cultivated by the courtiers of Henry VIII. as a vehicle of gallantry. The brave but unfortunate Surry had taſte to reliſh the Italian poets, and judgment to reject their affected, though ſplendid conceits. His ſonnets breathe the unaffected dictates of nature and love. Tenderneſs predominates in the ſentiment, whilſt eaſe and elegance diſtinguiſh the language. From theſe ſonnets, the earlieſt ſpecimens of a poliſhed diction and refined ſenſibility, ſucceeding poets diſcovered the capacity and ſecret powers of the Engliſh tongue. In poetical refinement, the elder Wyat co-operated with Surry.

CHAP. VI.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES. A. D. 1485—1547.

THOUGH *Eraſmus* was not a native of Britain, he reſided ſeveral years in England at different times, and by his teaching, converſation, and writings, contributed as much, if not more, than any other man, to inſpire a taſte for the ſtudy of the Roman and Greek claſſics, which was the firſt ſtage in the reſtoration of learning. He was born at Rotterdam, in 1467, and, having received a liberal education, made very great progreſs in his ſtudies. His maſters predicted, *that he would*

would ſome time prove the envy and wonder of all Germany. After taking prieſt's orders, he came over to England, where he met with the greateſt encouragement from Henry VIII. ſir Thomas More, and all the learned Engliſhmen of thoſe days. He was one of the moſt correct and elegant Latin writers among the moderns. The New Teſtament was firſt printed in Greek, at Baſil, under his inſpection, in the year 1515. He died in 1536, and was buried in the cathedral of Baſil, where his tomb yet remains. The inhabitants of Rotterdam ſtill ſhew with veneration the houſe where he was born, and there is a ſtatue erected to his memory in the open part of the city. His works were printed at Leyden, in 1706, in ten volumes, folio, under the direction of John Le Clerc.

Sir Thomas More, lord chancellor of England, the great friend and admirer of Eraſmus, was, next to him, one of the moſt ingenious and learned men of his age, and one of the chief reſtorers of learning. He was born in 1480, and being the only ſon of ſir John More, one of the judges of the king's bench, great pains were taken in his education. He gave early and ſtriking proofs of an uncommon genius, and before he was nineteen years of age he had acquired a critical knowledge of the Latin and Greek languages, and had ſtudied rhetoric and ſeveral other branches of learning. When he was about twenty he became a kind of devotee, faſted frequently, wore a hair-ſhirt, ſlept upon boards, and had a great inclination to enter into the Franciſcan order. From this however he was diverted by his friends; and in obedience to the commands of his father, whom he never diſobeyed, he applied to the ſtudy of the law. When he was called to the bar, he ſoon became conſpicuous by the eloquence of his pleadings, and was retained in almoſt every cauſe of importance. At the age of twenty-one he made a diſtinguiſhed figure as a member of the houſe of commons, in oppoſition to the court, when oppoſition was more dangerous than it hath been in latter times. At the acceſſion of Henry VIII. Mr. More's reputation

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and buſineſs were very great. But in the midſt of the greateſt hurry of buſineſs, in which the whole day was occupied, he ſtole time from his ſleep to purſue his favourite ſtudies, to correſpond with many learned men at home and abroad, and to compoſe his Utopia, which was univerſally admired, and tranſlated into ſeveral languages. Being appointed treaſurer of the exchequer, he was employed in ſeveral embaſſies, in which he acquitted himſelf with ability and ſucceſs. When Henry VIII. became intimately acquainted with him, he was ſo charmed with his learning and the pleaſantry of his converſation, that he ſent frequently for him to entertain and divert him. This was very diſagreeable to ſir Thomas, as it conſumed too much of his time; and, in order to get rid of this royal interruption, he made uſe of a ſtratagem, which few would have employed. He affected to be very dull and unentertaining ſeveral times ſucceſſively, and was no more ſent for; ſacrificing the reputation of a *wit* and the converſation of a *king* to ſave *his time*.

At laſt he brought down upon himſelf all the vengeance of that haughty and overbearing monarch, by oppoſing his divorce from Catharine of Arragon. This, however, not giving fair opportunity for open violence, ſeveral other accuſations were brought againſt him, but without ſucceſs, till the act of ſupremacy was paſſed in 1534, when the oath enjoined by that act being tendered to him about a month after, he refuſed to take it, and was committed priſoner to the tower of London. After he had lain 15 months in priſon, he was arraigned, tried, and found guilty of denying the king's ſupremacy, and condemned to be hanged, drawn, and quartered, and his head to be ſtuck on a pole upon London bridge. But this ſentence, on account of the high office he had borne, was, all but the laſt particular, changed by the king into beheading; which was executed on tower hill, on the 5th of July, 1535.

William Grocyn, born at Briſtol in 1442, was a great maſter of the Greek and Latin languages, and intro-

duced a better pronunciation of the latter than had been known before in this country. He was profeſſor of Greek at Oxford, where he taught Erasmus, with whom he contracted an intimate friendſhip, and kept him a conſiderable time in his houſe. He died at Maidſtone, in the 80th year of his age.

Doctor *Thomas Linacre*, born in 1460, was phyſician to both the Henrys and the moſt elegant ſcholar of his age. He founded two lectures of phyſic at Oxford, and one at Cambridge. He contributed very much to reſcue the healing arts from the wretched ſtate in which he found them, by his ſtrenuous and ſucceſsful efforts for the eſtabliſhment of the royal college of phyſicians in London, of which he was the firſt preſident, and to which he gave his own houſe for their place of meeting. When he was advanced in life he applied to the ſtudy of theology, was ordained a prieſt, and obtained ſeveral preferments in the church. He died in 1524. His virtues were at leaſt equal to his abilities. In a word, he was a benefactor to mankind, an honour to literature, and an ornament to human nature. Should ſuch men ever be forgotten!

Doctor *John Collet* was one of thoſe ingenious men, who contributed by their united labours to the revival of learning in Britain. He was the firſt born of the eleven ſons and eleven daughters of Sir Henry Collet, twice lord mayor of London, and was born in 1466. In 1505 he obtained the deanery of St. Paul's, where, by his preaching and other labours, he greatly advanced the reformation. Having a large eſtate without any near relations (for numerous as his family were, they were all dead,) he reſolved, in the midſt of life and health, to conſecrate the whole of it to ſome ſtanding and perpetual benefaction. And this he performed, by founding and endowing St. Paul's ſchool in London, of which he appointed the famous William Lily firſt maſter. He died of the Plague in 1519.

William Lily was another of thoſe ingenious and induſtrious men, who were the inſtruments of reviving learning in Britain, by introducing the ſtudy of the Greek

Greek and Latin claſſics. He was born at Odiham in Hampſhire in 1466, and died of the plague in 1522. When dean Collet had built and endowed his ſchool at St. Paul's, he appointed his friend Mr. Lily its firſt maſter in 1512, who preſided in it above twelve years with great reputation and ſucceſs. Among other things he compoſed a grammar for the uſe of that ſchool, which is well known. In this, however, he was aſſiſted by Eraſmus, doctor Collet, and Thomas Robinſon, three of the beſt linguiſts in Europe; and it was publiſhed with a preface compoſed by cardinal Wolſey, recommending it to univerſal uſe. Of ſuch *importance* did the education of youth in claſſical learning appear to the greateſt men of that age.

Gavin Douglas, a native of Scotland, eminent for his poetical talents, was born in 1474, and died in 1521. After finiſhing his academical ſtudies he went to Italy, where he acquired a taſte for poetry. In 1515 he was made biſhop of Dunkeld, and the rich abbey of Aberbrothic was afterwards added to his biſhoprick. Mr. Warton ſtyles him, "one of the diſtinguiſhed luminaries that marked the reſtoration of letters in Scotland at the commencement of the 16th century." His principal works are, *The palace of Honour*, and a tranſlation of *Virgil's Æneid* into Scottiſh heroics.

William Dunbar, another famous Scottiſh poet, contemporary with Douglas, celebrated the marriage of James IV. with Margaret of England, in his *Thiſtle and Roſe*, a very happy allegory, in which the vulgar topics of an epithalamium are judiciouſly avoided. His poems were publiſhed, with notes, by Sir David Dalrymple, and ſome of the beſt of them are to be found in the late collections of Pinkerton and Banatyne.

Hector Boethius, or *Boece*, was a native of Dundee, in the ſhire of Angus, and born in 1470. After he had finiſhed a courſe of education in the univerſity of St. Andrew's, he went to Paris, where he ſtudied ſeveral years in the college of Montacute, in which he was advanced to a profeſſor's chair. When King's college, Aberdeen, was founded by biſhop Elphinſtone,

he sent for Boece to be the first principal. On the death of that bishop he wrote his life, to which he added the lives of his predecessors. He next undertook the history of Scotland, which is certainly a valuable and well-written work. Both these books are in Latin, of which language he was a great master.

CHAP. VII.

COMMERCE, A. D. 1485—1547.

THE accession of Henry VII. to the throne of England was an event favourable to commerce, as it put an end to a long and ruinous civil war, which had thrown every thing into confusion, and inflamed the minds of one half of the people with the most violent hatred against the other. This king's love of money naturally led him to encourage commerce, which increased his customs. But if we may judge by most of the laws enacted during his reign, trade and industry were rather hurt than promoted by the care and attention given to them. Severe laws were made against taking interest for money, which was then denominated usury. Even the profits of exchange were prohibited, as favouring of usury, which the superstition of the age zealously proscribed. All evasive contracts, by which profits could be made from the loan of money, were also carefully guarded against. These laws must have been very hurtful to trade. We may observe, however, to the praise of this king, that sometimes, in order to promote commerce, he lent to merchants sums of money without interest, when he knew that their stock was not sufficient for those enterprises which they had in view.

It was prohibited to export horses; as if that exportation did not encourage the breed, and render them more plentiful in the kingdom. In order to promote archery, no bows were to be sold at a higher price than 6s. and 4d. of our present money. The only

only effect of this regulation muſt be, either that the people would be ſupplied with bad bows, or none at all. Prices were alſo fixed to woollen cloth, caps and hats; and the wages of labourers were regulated by law. It is evident that theſe matters ſhould be left free, in the common courſe of buſineſs and commerce.

In 1492 Chriſtopher Columbus, a Genoeſe, ſet out from Spain on his memorable voyage for the diſcovery of the weſtern world; and a few years after Vaſquez de Gama, a Portugueſe, paſſed the cape of Good Hope, and opened a new paſſage to the Eaſt Indies. Theſe great events were attended with important conſequences to all the nations of Europe, even to ſuch as were not immediately concerned in thoſe naval enterpriſes. By the enlargement of commerce and navigation, induſtry and the arts were every where increaſed. It was by accident only that Henry VII. had not a conſiderable ſhare in thoſe great naval diſcoveries, by which the preſent age was ſo much diſtinguiſhed. Columbus, after meeting with many repulſes from the courts of Portugal and Spain, ſent his brother Bartholomew to London, in order to explain his projects to Henry, and crave his protection for the execution of them. The king invited him over to England; but his brother being taken by pirates, was detained in his voyage, and Columbus mean while having obtained the countenance of Iſabella, was ſupplied with a ſmall fleet, and happily executed his enterpriſe. Henry, not diſcouraged by this diſappointment, fitted out Sebaſtian Cabot, a Venetian, ſettled in Briſtol, and ſent him weſtward, in A. D. 1498. ſearch of new countries. Cabot, after diſcovering America, returned to England without making any conqueſt or ſettlement. Elliot, and other merchants in Briſtol, made a like attempt in 1502. The king expended fourteen thouſand pounds in building one ſhip, called the *Great Harry*. She was, properly ſpeaking, the firſt ſhip in the Engliſh navy. Before this period, when the prince wanted a fleet, he had no other expedient than hiring or preſſing ſhips from the merchants.

During the reign of Henry VIII. the foreign commerce of England was chiefly confined to the Netherlands. The inhabitants of the low countries bought the Engliſh commodities, and diſtributed them into other parts of Europe.

Foreign artificers, in general, much ſurpaſſed the Engliſh in dexterity, induſtry, and frugality. Hence the violent animoſity which the latter, on many occaſions, expreſſed againſt any of the former who were ſettled in England. Irritated for want of cuſtomers, and moved by the ſeditious errors of one Dr. Bele, and the intrigues of Lincoln, a broker, they raiſed an inſurrection. The apprentices, and others of the poorer ſort, in London, began by breaking open the priſons, where ſome perſons were confined for inſulting foreigners. They next proceeded to the houſe of Meutas, a Frenchman, where they committed great diſorders, killed ſome of his ſervants, and plundered his goods. Neither the mayor, nor ſir Thomas More, under ſheriff, though much reſpected in the city, could appeaſe them. They alſo threatened cardinal Wolſey, who thought it neceſſary to fortify his houſe, and put himſelf on his guard. Tired at laſt with theſe diſorders, they diſperſed, when many of them were ſeized by the earls of Shrewſbury and Surrey. A proclamation was iſſued, that women ſhould not meet together to babble and talk, and that men ſhould keep their wives in their houſes. Next day the duke of Norfolk came into the city at the head of thirteen hundred armed men, and made enquiry into the tumult. Bele and Lincoln, and ſeveral others, were ſent to the Tower, and condemned for treaſon. Lincoln and thirteen more were executed. The other criminals, to the number of 400, being brought before the king, with ropes about their necks, fell on their knees, and cried for mercy. Henry knew at that time how to pardon, and diſmiſſed them without farther puniſhment.

A. D. 1517.

So great was the number of foreign artiſans in the city, that 15,000 Flemings were obliged to leave it, by

by an order of council, when Henry became jealous of their favour for queen Catharine. The king declared, in an edict of the star-chamber, that the foreigners ſtarved the natives, and obliged them, from idleneſs, to have recourſe to theft, murder, and other enormities. He alſo aſſerted that the vaſt multitude of foreigners raiſed the price of grain and bread. And to prevent an increaſe of the evil, all foreign artificers were prohibited from having above two foreigners in their houſes.

During this reign, about 2000 perſons were annually executed in England, for theft and robbery; a greater number than are now executed for thoſe crimes, in the ſpace of twenty years. Muſt there not then have been a great improvement in morals ſince the reign of Henry VIII? And this improvement has been chiefly owing to the increaſe of induſtry and of the arts, which have given maintenance, and what is almoſt of equal importance, occupation, to the lower claſſes.

The ſilver coins of Henry VII. were ſhillings or teſtoons, groats, pennies, and farthings. His gold coins were ſovereigns, rials, and nobles. They were all of ſtandard purity. He poſſeſſed too much money, and loved it too well, to ſink its value by too great a quantity of baſer metals. Henry VIII. after ſquandering his father's treaſures, iſſued coins, which had only four ounces of ſilver and eight ounces of alloy in the pound weight. This ſhameful debaſement of the money was one of the moſt imprudent, diſhonourable, and pernicious meaſures of his reign. It was productive of innumerable inconveniences in buſineſs, and the reſtoration of it to its ſtandard purity was found to be a work of great difficulty.

CHAP.

CHAP. VIII.

MANNERS. A. D. 1485—1547.

THE beſt criterion of civilized ſociety is the free intercourſe, and reciprocal confidence between parents and their offspring. Domeſtic manners, however, in this period, were ſevere and formal. A haughty reſerve was affected by the old, and abject deference exacted from the young. Sons, when arrived at manhood, ſtood uncovered, and ſilent in their father's preſence; and daughters, though women, were placed like ſtatues at the cupboard, and not permitted to ſit down till their mother departed.

Though thoſe times were magnificent, moſt of the comforts and conveniences of modern life were unknown. Queen Margaret, on her marriage with James IV. made her public entry into Edinburgh, riding on a pillion behind the king. The halls and chambers of the wealthy were ſurrounded with hangings of arras, and furniſhed with a cupboard, long tables, forms, a chair, and a few joint-ſtools. Their beds were apparently comfortable, and often elegant; but people of inferior condition ſlept on a mat, or a ſtraw pallet, under a rug, with a log for a pillow.

The large and fantaſtical head-dreſſes of the ladies, in the former age, were now ſuperſeded by coifs and velvet bonnets. Among gentlemen, long hair was faſhionable through Europe, till the emperor Charles devoted his locks for his health; and in England, Henry, a tyrant even in taſte, gave efficacy to the faſhion by a peremptory order for his attendants and courtiers to poll their heads. The ſame ſpirit induced him, by ſumptuary laws, to regulate the inordinate dreſs of his ſubjects. Cloth of gold or tiſſue was reſerved for dukes and marquiſes, and that of a purple colour, for the royal family. Silks and velvets were reſtricted to commoners of wealth and diſtinction, and

embroidery

embroidery was forbidden to all beneath the degree of an earl. Cuffs for the ſleeves, and ruffs for the neck, were the invention of this period. Pockets, a convenience unknown to the ancients, are perhaps the lateſt real improvement on dreſs: but inſtead of pockets, a looſe pouch ſeems to have been ſometimes ſuſpended from the girdle.

Their cookery was diſtinguiſhed by the profuſion of hot ſpices, with which every diſh was ſeaſoned. At entertainments, the rank of the gueſts was diſcriminated, by their ſituation above or below the ſaltceller, which was placed invariably in the middle of the table, and the uſher was inſtructed to diſplace ſuch as might ſeat themſelves above their betters. The chief ſervants always attended above the ſaltceller, beneath which the table was crowded with poor dependents, whom the gueſts deſpiſed, and the ſervants neglected. Churchmen affected peculiar ceremony, and the abbot of St. Alban's dined with greater ſtate than the nobility. His table was elevated 15 ſteps above the hall, and in ſerving his dinner, the monks, at every fifth ſtep, performed a hymn. He dined alone at the middle of his table, to the ends of which gueſts of diſtinguiſhed rank were admitted; and the monks, after attending the abbot, were ſerved with equal reſpect by the novices. At Wolſey's entertainment of the French ambaſſadors, the company was ſummoned by trumpet to ſupper, and the courſes were announced by a prelude of muſic.

CHAP. IX.

INCIDENTS AND CURIOUS PARTICULARS, A. D. 1485—1547.

IN 1485, Henry VII. on the day of his coronation, eſtabliſhed 50 yeomen of the guards, the firſt ſtanding army.

In 1500, there happened ſo great a plague in England, that it obliged the king and court to remove to Calais,

Calais, and carried off upwards of 30,000 people in London.

In 1529, the name of Proteſtant took its riſe from the reformed proteſting againſt the church of Rome, at the diet of Spires in Germany.

In 1544, good lands were let at one ſhilling per acre, being only a twentieth part of the uſual rent at preſent. Commodities, however, were not cheap in proportion, owing, in great meaſure, to the bad huſbandry of that age.

In 1546, a law was made for fixing the intereſt of money at 10 per cent. This was the firſt legal intereſt known in England. Formerly, all laws of that nature were regarded as uſurious. The preamble of this very law treats the intereſt of money as illegal and criminal; and the prejudices ſtill remained ſo ſtrong, that the law permitting intereſt was repealed in the following reign.

BOOK VII.

CHAP. I.

MILITARY HISTORY FROM THE DEATH OF HENRY VIII. IN 1547, TO THAT OF QUEEN ELIZABETH, IN 1603.

EDWARD VI. being only nine years old at the time of his father's death, the regency was ſettled in the perſon of his uncle, the earl of Hertford, afterwards the protector and duke of Somerſet, a declared friend of the reformation. Much of the popiſh leaven, however, ſtill remained in the council, which was embroiled at once with France and Scotland. A. D. 1547.

As ſoon as the ſtate was brought to ſome degree of compoſure, the protector marched into Scotland with an army of 13,000 men, in order to execute, if poſſible, the project of uniting the two kingdoms by a marriage between Edward and Mary Stewart, their young queen; an union which Henry had recommended with his dying breath. But the queen dowager's attachment to France and the catholic religion, rendering the negociation ineffectual, a deſperate battle was fought near Muſſleburgh, in which 10,000 of the Scots were killed.

The reformation was not effected without many public diſturbances. The common people, during the reigns of Henry and Edward, being deprived of the great relief they had from abbeys and religious houſes, often took up arms, but were as often ſuppreſſed by the government. Several of theſe inſurrections were cruſhed in this reign. At laſt the protector, who was upon the whole a weak, but conſcientious man, was

firſt driven from the helm of ſtate, and then loſt his head upon a ſcaffold. Dudley, who was created duke of Northumberland, then took the lead, and perſuaded Edward, who, though young, meant extremely well, and was a ſincere proteſtant, into many impolitic meaſures.

The reformation, however, through the zeal of Cranmer, and others, made rapid progreſs. In ſome caſes, particularly with regard to the princeſs Mary, they loſt ſight of that moderation which the reformers had before ſo ſtrongly recommended; and ſome ſanguinary executions, on account of religion, took place. Edward's youth excuſes him from blame, while his charitable endowments, as Bridewell, St. Thomas's hoſpitals, and ſeveral ſchools which ſtill exiſt and flouriſh, ſhew the goodneſs of his heart. He died of a conſumption in 1553, in the 16th year of his age, and the 7th of his reign.

Edward, on his death-bed, from his zeal for religion, made a very unconſtitutional will, excluding his ſiſter Mary from the ſucceſſion, which was claimed by lady Jane Grey, daughter to the ducheſs of Suffolk, younger ſiſter of Henry VIII. This lady, though ſhe had ſcarcely reached her 17th year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but the bulk of the Engliſh nation recognized the claim of the princeſs Mary, and lady Jane was beheaded. Her huſband, lord Guildford Dudley, and his father, the duke of Northumberland, ſuffered in the ſame manner.

Mary being thus ſettled on the throne, ſuppreſſed an inſurrection under Wyat, and proceeded like a female fury, to re-eſtabliſh popery. She lighted up the flames of perſecution, to which ſhe conſigned the moſt illuſtrious reformers. Her huſband, Philip II. king of Spain, like herſelf, was an unfeeling bigot; and the chief praiſe of her reign is, that, by the marriage articles, proviſion was made for the independence of the Engliſh crown. By the aſſiſtance of troops, which ſhe ſent to her huſband, he gained the important battle of St. Quintin; but that victory was ſo ill improved,

A. D. 1553.

proved, that the French, under the duke of Guiſe, ſoon after took Calais, the only place then remaining to the Engliſh in France, and which had been held ever ſince the reign of Edward III. This loſs, which was chiefly owing to cardinal Pole's ſecret connections with the French court, is ſaid to have broken Mary's heart, who died in 1558, in the 42d year of her age, and the 6th of her reign.

Elizabeth was at Hatfield when ſhe heard of her ſiſter's death, from whence ſhe went to London, through crowds of people, who ſtrove with each other in giving her the ſtrongeſt teſtimony of their affection. This joy diffuſed itſelf through every rank. When the demiſe of Mary was notified to the parliament, the two houſes immediately reſounded with the joyful acclamations of "God ſave queen Elizabeth. Long and happily may ſhe reign!" A. D. 1558.

As Elizabeth was daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, her title to the crown, on account of the circumſtances attending her mother's marriage and death, was diſputed by Mary queen of Scots, grandchild to the eldeſt daughter of Henry VII. and wife to the dauphin of France. But her ſufferings under her bigoted ſiſter, joined to the ſuperiority of her genius, having taught her caution and policy, ſhe took advantage of the divided ſtate of Scotland, and formed a party there, by which Mary was obliged to ſuſpend her claim.

The queen of Scots, finding her abode in France diſagreeable, through the death of her huſband, and the mortifications ſhe met with from the queen-mother, returned to her native country. Mary had at this time reached her nineteenth year, when the bloom of her youth, and beauty of her perſon, recommended by the affability of her addreſs, the politeneſs of her manners, and the elegance of her genius, ſo attracted the affections of her ſubjects, that her arrival ſeemed to give univerſal ſatisfaction. But there was one circumſtance which blaſted all theſe promiſing appearances, and bereaved Mary of that great favour, which her

her agreeable manners and judicious deportment gave her juſt reaſon to expect. She was a papiſt; and the reformers, being now in power, ſhe was continually expoſed to their inſolence. The helpleſs queen bore their contumely with benignity and patience; and, though her age, condition, and education, invited her to liberty and cheerfulneſs, ſhe found herſelf curbed in all her amuſements, by the abſurd ſeverity of theſe zealots.

Deſtitute of all force, poſſeſſing a narrow revenue, ſurrounded by a turbulent nobility, a bigoted people, and inſolent eccleſiaſtics, Mary ſoon perceived that her only expedient for maintaining tranquillity, was to preſerve a good correſpondence with Elizabeth. She accordingly ſent an ambaſſador to London, to expreſs her deſire of friendſhip, and, as a proof of her ſincerity, offered to renounce all her preſent pretenſions to the crown of England, provided the Engliſh queen would agree to declare her the ſucceſſor to her realms. But ſuch was the jealous character of the latter, that ſhe would never conſent to ſtrengthen the intereſt and authority of any claimant, by fixing the ſucceſſion. A peace, however, was concluded between theſe two princeſſes, and even a cordial friendſhip ſeemed to have been cemented between them. They made profeſſion of the moſt entire affection, wrote amicable letters every week to each other, and had adopted, in all appearance, the ſentiments, as well as ſtyle, of ſiſters. Mary's ſubjects and counſellors now thought it was time that ſome marriage ſhould be concluded for her; and lord Darnley, ſon of the earl of Lenox, was the perſon in whom their opinions and wiſhes ſeemed to centre. This young nobleman was couſin-german to Mary, being the ſon of lady Margaret Douglas, niece to Henry VIII. and, after her, the next heir to the crown of England. As he was in his twentieth year, well ſhaped, and of a graceful air, he conſequently appeared agreeable in the eyes of the queen, and their marriage was ſoon celebrated. Though Elizabeth was not diſpleaſed with this match, and endeavoured ſecretly

to promote it, no ſooner had it taken place, than ſhe teſtified the greateſt diſpleaſure at it, though ſhe could not aſſign a ſingle reaſon for doing ſo. It ſerved her as a pretext, not only for refuſing to acknowledge Mary's title to the ſucceſſion of England, but for encouraging the diſcontents and rebellion of the Scottiſh nobility and eccleſiaſtics; which now broke out afreſh, as Darnley, who bore the title of king Henry, was believed to adhere to the catholic faith. But while Mary had been allured by the youth, beauty, and exterior accompliſhments of her huſband, ſhe had overlooked the qualities of his mind, which in no wiſe correſponded with the excellence of his outſide figure. Violent, fickle, inſolent, ungrateful, and addicted to low pleaſures, he was incapable of all true ſentiments of love and tenderneſs. The queen, in the firſt effuſions of her fondneſs, had exalted him beyond meaſure, but having afterwards leiſure to remark his weakneſs and his vices, ſhe proceeded with more reſerve, till Henry, enraged at her imagined neglect, pointed his vengeance againſt every one whom he deemed the cauſe of this change in her meaſures and behaviour.

There was in the court a perſon named David Rizzio, who had lately obtained a very extraordinary degree of confidence and favour with the Scottiſh queen. He was the ſon of a Piedmonteſe teacher of muſic, and himſelf a muſician; and having a good ear, and a tolerable voice, was retained by Mary in her ſervice, after the departure of the ambaſſador from Savoy, in whoſe ſuite he had come over. Having frequent opportunities of approaching her perſon, and being of an inſinuating addreſs, he ſo far obtained her countenance, that he was conſulted on all occaſions, and no favours could be obtained but by his interceſſion. It was eaſy for Henry's friends to perſuade him that Rizzio was the author of Mary's indifference, and even to inſpire him with jealouſies of a more dangerous nature. A plan was therefore agreed upon between the king and ſeveral noblemen, to put to death a man ſo obnoxious, not only to him, but to the whole king-

kingdom. Henry and his friends, accordingly, one evening, entered the room where the queen was supping in private, with Rizzio, and ſome others of her ſervants; and notwithſtanding the cries, menaces, and intreaties of Mary, who was in the ſixth month of her pregnancy, the hated favourite was firſt ſtabbed by one of the conſpirators in her preſence, and then puſhed into the anti-chamber, where he was diſpatched with fifty-ſix wounds. The unhappy princeſs, informed of his fate, immediately dried her tears, and ſaid, ſhe would weep no more, but would ſeek for revenge.

The aſſaſſins, apprehenſive of Mary's reſentment, detained her priſoner in the palace; but having gained the confidence of her huſband, by her perſuaſions and careſſes, ſhe engaged him to eſcape with her to Dunbar. She there collected an army, and advancing to Edinburgh, obliged the conſpirators to flee into England. Her principal vengeance ſhe reſerved for Henry, againſt whom ſhe now expreſſed the ſtrongeſt proofs of diſpleaſure.

The earl of Bothwel, a nobleman of conſiderable family and power in Scotland, but of profligate manners, and greatly in debt, had of late acquired the favour and entire confidence of Mary, and all her meaſures were directed by his advice and authority. Reports were ſpread of more particular intimacies. Young Henry was reduced to ſuch a ſtate of deſperation by theſe circumſtances, that he left the court, and retired to Glaſgow, where he was ſuddenly ſeized by an extraordinary illneſs, which was univerſally aſcribed to a doſe of poiſon. The queen took a journey to Glaſgow, on purpoſe to viſit him during his ſickneſs, when ſhe behaved to him with ſuch well counterfeited tenderneſs, that he put himſelf implicitly into her hands, and attended her to Edinburgh. She lived in the palace of Holy-rood houſe; but as the ſituation of that place was low, and the concourſe of people about the court was neceſſarily attended with noiſe, which might diſturb him in his preſent infirm ſtate of health, an apartment was fitted up for him in a ſolitary houſe,

at

at ſome diſtance, called The Kirk of Field. Mary here continued to treat him with marks of kindneſs, and lay ſome nights in a room below his; but on the month of February, ſhe told him, that ſhe ſhould paſs the night in the palace, becauſe the marriage of one of her ſervants was there to be celebrated in her preſence. About two o'clock in the morning, the whole town was alarmed by a great noiſe from the king's houſe, which was blown up by gunpowder. As Henry's dead body was found at ſome diſtance, in a neighbouring field, without any marks either of fire, contuſion, or violence, no doubt could be entertained of his being murdered; and general conjecture ſoon pointed towards the earl of Bothwel, the author of the crime.

Bothwel was ſoon after tried for the murder of the king, on the accuſation of the earl of Lenox, Henry's father, when, through his own influence, and that of the queen, he was acquitted. The ſubſequent meaſures of this nobleman were equally audacious. Mary having gone to Stirling, to pay a viſit to her ſon, he way-laid her on her return, at the head of 800 horſe, and, ſeizing her perſon, carried her to Dunbar, with an avowed deſign of forcing her to yield to his purpoſe. The queen, however, does not appear to have reſented this act of audacity; for, a few days after, he received a pardon for the violence committed on her perſon, and for all other crimes; and to complete the infamous ſcene, within a ſhort time they were married, a precipitate divorce between Bothwel and his wife having been obtained for this purpoſe. The news of theſe tranſactions, being carried to foreign countries, filled Europe with amazement, and threw infamy, not only on the principal actors of them, but alſo on the whole nation.

Some attempts made by Bothwel, it is ſaid, with the queen's conſent, to get the young prince into his power, excited the moſt ſerious attention; and an aſſociation was formed for protecting the prince, and puniſhing the king's murderers. Armies were raiſed on both ſides; and a battle enſuing, Mary was de-

feated at Carbery-hill, and being taken priſoner, was ſent to the caſtle of Lochlevin, ſituated on a lake of that name. Bothwel found means to make his eſcape to Denmark, where he was thrown into priſon, loſt his ſenſes, and died miſerable about ten years after.

Many ſchemes were propoſed by the aſſociated lords for the treatment of the captive queen. The reſult of theſe was, that they obliged her to ſign an inſtrument, by which ſhe reſigned her crown in favour of her ſon, and appointed the earl of Murray regent. In conſequence of this forced reſignation, the young prince was proclaimed king, by the name of James VI.

The queen of Scots, now finding it impoſſible to remain in her own kingdom, embraced the reſolution of taking ſhelter in England, where ſhe had often been promiſed a ſafe and an honourable aſylum. Elizabeth, however, being unfaithful to this profeſſion of friendſhip, detained the unhappy priſoner eighteen years, when ſhe brought her to a ſham trial, pretending that Mary aimed at the crown, and without ſufficient proof of her guilt, put her to death; an action which greatly tarniſhed the glories of her reign.

As to Elizabeth's affairs with Spain, which formed in fact the main buſineſs of her government, they exhibit different ſcenes of wonderful events, partly ariſing from her own maſterly conduct, partly from the ſagacity of her ſtateſmen, and partly from the intrepidity of her forces by ſea and land.

The ſame Philip, who had been the huſband of her late ſiſter, upon Elizabeth's acceſſion to the throne, offered to marry her, but ſhe dexterouſly avoided his addreſſes; and by a train of ſkilful negociations between her court and that of France, kept the balance of Europe ſo undetermined, that ſhe had leiſure to unite her people at home, and to eſtabliſh an exeellent internal policy. But as the king of Spain could not always be impoſed upon by her arts, he made uſe of the immenſe ſums which he drew from Peru and Mexico, in equipping the moſt formidable armament that perhaps had ever been put to ſea, and a numerous army of

of veterans, under the prince of Parma, the beſt captain of that age. The moſt renowned nobility and princes of Italy and Spain were ambitious of ſharing in the enterpriſe, and ſo elated were the Spaniards with vain hopes, that they denominated their navy *The Invincible Armada*. Lord Howard, however, and the brave ſea officers under him engaged, beat, and chaſed this formidable fleet for ſeveral days; and had not their ammunition fallen ſhort, they would have obliged the whole armada to ſurrender at diſcretion. An event, however, almoſt equally fatal to the Spaniards, ſoon happened. A violent tempeſt overtook them after they had paſſed the Orkneys; and many of the ſhips were driven either on the Weſtern iſles of Scotland, or on the coaſt of Ireland, where they were miſerably wrecked, ſo that not one half of them returned to Spain. Such was the miſerable and diſhonourable concluſion of an enterpriſe, which had been preparing for three years, which had exhauſted the revenue and force of Spain, and which had long filled all Europe with anxiety or expectation.

The diſcomfiture of the armada having begotten a kind of enthuſiaſtic paſſion for enterprifes againſt the Spaniards, ſeveral expeditions were undertaken, in order to invade their territories in Europe and America, when many of their rich ſhips were captured. In moſt of theſe, the command was given to the earl of Eſſex, who by his exterior accompliſhments, and real merit, was daily advancing in favour with Elizabeth. His paſſion for glory made him deſire a continuance of the war, and he encouraged the queen in the proſecution of it. The rivalſhip between this nobleman and Lord Burleigh, made each inſiſt the more ſtrenuouſly on his own counſel; but as Eſſex's perſon was agreeable to the queen, as well as his advice conformable to her inclinations, the favourite ſeemed daily to acquire an aſcendant over the miniſter. Had he been endowed with caution and ſelf-command, equal to his ſhining qualities, he would have riveted himſelf in the queen's confidence. But his lofty ſpirit could

ill ſubmit to that implicit deference, which her temper required. Being once engaged with her in a diſpute about the choice of a governor for Ireland, he was ſo far heated in the argument, that he entirely forgot the rules both of duty and civility, and turned his back upon her in a contemptuous manner. Her anger, naturally prompt and violent, roſe at this provocation, and ſhe gave him a box on the ear. Inſtead of recollecting himſelf, and making the ſubmiſſion due to her ſex and ſtation, Eſſex clapped his hand to his ſword, and ſwore he would not bear ſuch uſage, even from Henry the eighth himſelf. The queen's partiality, however, was ſo prevalent, that ſhe reinſtated him in her former favour; and her kindneſs to him even appeared to have acquired new force from this ſhort interval of anger and reſentment.

As Elizabeth was now far advanced in life, ſhe became diſtruſtful, peeviſh, and jealous. Though ſhe undoubtedly loved the earl of Eſſex, ſhe teaſed him by her capricious temper into the madneſs of taking arms, and then put him to death. Soon after ſhe fell into a profound melancholy, which all the advantages of her high fortune, and all the glories of her proſperous reign, were unable to alleviate. This depreſſion of mind was attributed to various cauſes, but the moſt probable was, a revival of her tenderneſs for Eſſex, occaſioned by an unexpected incident.

That unfortunate nobleman had received a ring from Elizabeth, during the time of her greateſt regard for him, which ſhe deſired him to keep as a pledge of her affection; aſſuring him, at the ſame time, that into whatever diſgrace he ſhould fall, or whatever prejudices ſhe might be induced to entertain againſt him, yet, if he ſent her that ring, it would immediately recall her former tenderneſs. Eſſex, notwithſtanding all his misfortunes, reſerved this precious gift to the laſt extremity; but after his trial and condemnation, he reſolved to try the experiment, and committing the ring to the counteſs of Nottingham, requeſted her to deliver it to the queen. The counteſs was prevailed

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on by her husband, the mortal enemy of Essex, not to execute the commission; and Elizabeth, who expected that her favourite would make this last appeal to her tenderness, urged by resentment and policy, signed the fatal warrant. The countess of Nottingham, upon her death-bed, revealed this secret to the queen, who, astonished at the incident, burst into a furious passion, and afterwards resigned herself over to the deepest and most incurable melancholy. She refused all sustenance. Ten days and ten nights she lay upon the carpet; nor could her physicians persuade her to allow herself to be put to bed, or to make trial of any remedies.

Her anxious mind, at last, had so long preyed on her frail body, that her end visibly approached; and the council being assembled, sent three of their number to know her will with regard to her successor. She answered with a faint voice, that as she had held a regal sceptre, she desired no other than a royal successor. And being requested to answer more particularly, she named her kinsman, the king of Scotland. Her voice soon after left her; her senses failed; she fell into a lethargic slumber, which continued some hours; and she expired gently, without farther struggle or convulsion, in the seventieth year of her age, and the forty-fifth of her reign. So dark a cloud overcast the evening of that day, which had shone out with such a mighty lustre in the eyes of all Europe. A. D. 1603.

Elizabeth understood the art of reigning in an eminent degree. Her wise ministers and brave warriors share the praise of her success; but they owed their advancement to her choice, were supported by her constancy, and, with all their abilities, could never acquire an undue ascendancy over her. In her family, in her court, and in her kingdom, she remained equally mistress. The force of the tender passions was great over her, but the force of her mind was still superior. When we contemplate her as a woman, we are struck with the highest admiration of her great qualities and

extenſive capacity, while we alſo require more ſoftneſs of diſpoſition, greater lenity of temper, and ſome of thoſe amiable weakneſſes by which her ſex is diſtinguiſhed. On a throne, however, ſhe was enabled to hide her leſs commendable qualities under the blaze of a magnanimous heroiſm.

CHAP. II.

ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY. A. D. 1547—1603.

THE reformation was much forwarded by the deceaſe of the capricious Henry, and the acceſſion of the amiable and virtuous Edward. It had on its ſide, the affection of the young king, whoſe education was totally in the hands of reformers, the wiſe counſels of Cranmer, the firm and bold arguments delivered from the pulpits of Latimer, Hooper, and other celebrated preachers, as well as the good will of the people in general. It had alſo an addition of ſtrength in the eagerneſs for plunder which moſt of the old courtiers of Henry poſſeſſed. By eſtabliſhing the new doctrines, theſe had a chance of pillaging the ſecular, as they had already the regular clergy. Indifferent to all religion they dreaded the return of Popery, as it muſt bring with it a ſevere account for them to ſettle.

Biſhop Gardiner in the chapel royal, though requeſted not to ſpeak on controverſial ſubjects, warmly ſupported the real preſence of Chriſt's fleſh and blood in the ſacrament. The effect of this ill-judged rhapſody was groſsly indecent. Each party, in the church, and before the king, cried out with vehemence to ſupport or to inſult the preacher, when the impolitic orator, on his leaving the roſtrum, was committed to priſon. His eloquence had little effect on the prepared mind of the young monarch, who had already ordered prayers to be read in the Engliſh language.

When Mary aſcended the throne, ſhe ſet at liberty the biſhops Gardiner, Tonſtal, and Bonner, who were

in confinement for adhering to the catholic cauſe; and having imbibed from her mother the ſtrongeſt attachment to that communion, ſhe ſoon gave the nation reaſon to dread, not only the abolition, but the perſecution of the eſtabliſhed religion. Holgate, archbiſhop of York, Coverdale, biſhop of Exeter, Ridley of London, and Hooper of Glouceſter, were thrown into priſon. Nor could the merits of Cranmer, who had rendered her conſiderable ſervices, ſecure him from her perſecution. The queen ſoon after called a parliament, which, as all who heſitated to comply with the court religion declined taking a ſeat, was compoſed of a majority that proved obſequious to her deſigns. She, however, ſtill retained the title of ſupreme head of the church of England; and it was generally pretended that the intention of the court was only to reſtore religion to the ſame condition in which it had been left by Henry.

Not long after the conſummation of the queen's marriage with the Spaniſh prince, cardinal Pole, who was nearly allied to the royal family of England, arrived in London, inveſted with legatine powers from the pope. As ſoon as he had been introduced to the king and queen, he invited the parliament to reconcile themſelves and the kingdom to the apoſtolic ſee. And care having been taken to diſtribute among them 400,000 crowns, which the emperor had ſent over for that purpoſe, they readily agreed to the propoſal. The legate then, in the name of his holineſs, gave the parliament and kingdom abſolution, and received them again into the boſom of the church.

The affairs of adminiſtration in matters of religion, were now chiefly conducted by biſhop Gardiner and cardinal Pole. The latter was poſſeſſed of candour and moderation; but the perſecuting ſpirit of Gardiner, being conſonant with the more cruel bigotry of Mary and Philip, the laws were let looſe in their full vigour againſt the reformed religion, and England was ſoon filled with ſcenes of horror. The perſecutors began with Rogers, prebendary of St. Paul's, a man eminent

for virtue and learning, who was burnt in Smithfield. Hooper, biſhop of Glouceſter, was ſent to his own dioceſe to be executed. Ferrar, biſhop of St. David's, was likewiſe burnt in his own dioceſe. Ridley, biſhop of London, and Latimer, formerly biſhop of Worceſter, periſhed together in the ſame flames at Oxford. It is almoſt impoſſible to enumerate all the cruelties practiſed upon this occaſion, under the direction of Gardiner, aſſiſted by Bonner, a man of profligate manners and brutal character. During the courſe of three years, it is computed that two hundred and ſeventy-ſeven perſons were brought to the ſtake, beſides thoſe who were puniſhed by impriſonments, fines, and confiſcations. They all died with calmneſs and intrepidity, avowing even while their ſinews were ſhrinking, and their fleſh conſuming by the flames, their entire reſignation to the will of Heaven, and their triumphant joy in the cauſe for which they ſuffered.

In 1556 a further act of barbarity was exerciſed upon the proteſtants, which tended to render the government ſtill more unpopular. Cranmer, who had been long in confinement, was now brought to puniſhment. Overcome by the love of life, and terrified by the proſpect of thoſe tortures which awaited him, the worthy prelate allowed, in an unguarded hour, the ſentiments of nature to prevail over his reſolution, and agreed to ſubſcribe the doctrines of the papal ſupremacy and of the real preſence. The court, however, at once perfidious and cruel, determined that this ſhould avail him nothing; and ordered him to be immediately carried to execution. Cranmer, repenting of what he had done, there atoned for his frailty, by holding his right hand in the flames till it was entirely conſumed, calling aloud ſeveral times, *This hand has offended.*

Cranmer was charitable, mild, and hoſpitable. His manners converted many of his foes to friends, and he never made an enemy by his conduct in private life. His palace was the general aſylum of diſtreſſed literature. Bucer, Fagius, Sleidan, Peter Martyr, Alaſco, and

and a learned Scot, named Aleſs, all found maintenance and repoſe at Lambeth.

On the death of her ſiſter, Elizabeth did not remain long in ſuſpence with regard to the party ſhe ſhould embrace. Her education, as well as her intereſt, led her to favour the reformation. But, though determined in her own mind, ſhe reſolved to proceed by gradual and ſecure ſteps, and not to imitate the example of Mary, in making immediately a violent invaſion on the eſtabliſhed religion. She delayed the entire change of religion, till the meeting of the parliament, when, after her right of ſucceſſion to the throne was ſettled, ſuch acts were paſſed, as tended to the perfect eſtabliſhment of the proteſtant religion. Having ordered that the goſpels and epiſtles, the Lord's prayer, the apoſtles' creed, and the ten commandments, ſhould be read in Engliſh in all places of worſhip, Elizabeth ſoon found how pleaſing theſe directions appeared to the generality of her people, and particularly to the inhabitants of the metropolis. Among other tokens it was remarked, that as ſhe went in proceſſion under a triumphal arch erected by the city of London, ſhe was preſented, by a cherub deſcending from above in the character of Truth, with an Engliſh copy of the bible; ſhe received it moſt graciouſly, kiſſed it, and placed it in her boſom.

The tranſlation of the bible into Engliſh was at this juncture oddly recommended to the queen by one Rainsford, a proteſtant, whom ſhe had releaſed, who implored her pity for four other priſoners, Matthew, Mark, Luke, and John. Elizabeth, not diſpleaſed at the quaint idea, ſmiled and told him, that ſhe muſt firſt enquire whether *theſe captives* wiſhed to be releaſed.

During the year 1559 the oath of ſupremacy was tendered to the biſhops of Mary's appointment, and all, except Kitchen of Landaff, refuſed it, and loſt their ſees. Heath, Tonſtal, and Thirlby, were treated with great kindneſs; the former was exiled to his own eſtate, where the queen frequently viſited him; the other two lived at Lambeth with their hoſpitable friend Archbiſhop Parker. White and Watſon being ſullen,

were kept some time in confinement; and the detestable Bonner spent the rest of his days in prison. Most of the monks returned to the occupations of secular life, whilst the nuns chiefly went abroad. These were the principal alterations which the change of religion operated on the fortunes of private persons. Not a drop of blood was spilt, nor one estate confiscated.

Towards the close of the same year, the consecration of Doctor Parker to the see of Canterbury, and of fifteen other prelates, was performed at Lambeth chapel. The doctor had been chaplain to the unfortunate Anna Boleyn, who conjured him to keep her daughter Elizabeth steady in point of religion. Being faithful to his trust, he with difficulty escaped the flames in the reign of Mary.

To settle the religion of the nation, to translate the scriptures into English, and to regulate the ecclesiastical courts, were great objects, which the new constellation of bishops earnestly endeavoured to compass. The translation of the Bible was allotted to various eminent divines, who accomplished it in the space of two years *.

About this time the heads of the protestant party in Scotland entered privately into a bond of association for their mutual protection and the propagation of their tenets, styling themselves the *Congregation of the Lord*, in contradiction to the established church, which they denominated the *Congregation of Satan*. The converts to the new religion had been guilty of no violation of public peace, since the murder of cardinal Beaton, by whom the reformers were cruelly persecuted. Among those committed to the flames, was a popular preacher, named George Wishart; a man of honourable birth,

* The first translation of the Bible was that of Wickliffe, about the year 1360. Printing was not then known, but several MS. copies of it exist in public libraries. The first printed English Bible we owe to William Tindal, assisted by Dr. Coverdale, bishop of Exeter. After receiving many improvements from the learned Dr. Rogers, Mary's protomartyr, and others, this work was called *Cranmer's Bible*. The translation now undertaken is known by the name of the Bishops' Bible.

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and of primitive ſanctity, who poſſeſſed in an eminent degree the talent of ſeizing the attention and engaging the affections of the multitude. Wiſhart ſuffered with the patience of a martyr; but he could not forbear remarking the barbarous triumph of his inſulting adverſary, who beheld from a window of his ſumptuous palace the inhuman ſpectacle: and he foretold, that in a few days the cardinal ſhould, in the ſame palace, lie as low as now he was exalted high, in oppoſition to true piety and religion.

This prophecy, like many others, was probably the cauſe of the event which it foretold. The diſciples of Wiſhart, enraged at his cruel execution, formed a conſpiracy againſt Beaton; and having aſſociated with them Norman Leſly, eldeſt ſon of the earl of Rothes, who was inſtigated by revenge on account of private injuries, they ſurpriſed the cardinal in his palace or caſtle at St. Andrew's, and inſtantly put him to death. One of the aſſaſſins, named James Melvil, before he ſtruck the fatal blow, turned the point of his ſword towards Beaton, and in a tone of pious exhortation called to him, "Repent thee, thou wicked Cardinal, of all thy ſins and iniquities; but eſpecially of the murder of George Wiſhart, that inſtrument of Chriſt for the converſion of theſe lands. It is his death which now cries for vengeance. We are ſent by God to inflict the deſerved puniſhment upon thee."

Alarmed at the progreſs of the reformation, the popiſh clergy had attempted to recover their ſinking authority, by enforcing the tyrannical laws againſt hereſy; and Hamilton, the primate, formerly diſtinguiſhed by his moderation, had ſentenced to the flames Walter Mills, an aged prieſt, convicted of embracing the proteſtant opinions *. This was the laſt barbarity

* The good old reformer died with wonderful intrepidity. During his examination, his anſwers were acute and witty. Oliphant, a prieſt, having aſked him, whether there were not ſeven ſacraments? he replied, "give me the Lord's ſupper and baptiſm, and divide the reſt among you." What think you of matrimony, ſaid the other? "I think it a bleſſed bond," ſaid Mills. "You abhor it, and take other men's wives and daughters."

of the kind that the catholics had the power to exercise in Scotland. The severity of the archbishop rather roused than intimidated the reformers, who were powerful, supported by the rhetoric of John Knox, a preacher, possessed of a bold and popular eloquence. Having been carried prisoner into France, together with other persons taken in the castle of St. Andrew's, soon after the murder of cardinal Beaton, Knox had made his escape out of that kingdom; and, after residing sometimes in England, and sometimes in Scotland, had found it necessary, in order to avoid the vengeance of the popish clergy, to retire to Geneva. There he imbibed all the enthusiasm, and heightened the natural ferocity of his own character by the severe doctrines of Calvin, who had succeeded Zuinglius in the apostleship of that republic, and completed its ecclesiastical establishment.

Invited home by the heads of the protestant party in Scotland, Knox immediately joined his brethren, that he might share with them in the common danger, as well as in the glory of promoting the common cause. Having mounted the pulpit at Stirling, he declaimed with such vehemence against the idolatry, and other abuses of the church of Rome, that his audience were strongly incited to attempt its utter subversion. During those movements of holy indignation, the indiscreet bigotry of a priest, who immediately after that violent invective, was preparing to celebrate mass, and had opened all his repository of images and reliques, hurried the enthusiastic populace into immediate action. They fell with fury upon the devout catholic, broke the images, tore the pictures, overthrew the altars, and scattered about the sacred vases. They next proceeded to the monasteries, against which their zeal more particularly pointed its thunder. Not content with expelling the monks, and defacing every implement of idolatrous worship, as they termed it, they vented their rage upon the buildings which had been the receptacles of such abomination; and, in a few hours, those superb edifices were level with the ground.

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In 1560, the parliament was perfectly disposed to establish the protestant faith. Petitions in favor of reformation were kindly received, and the few Roman Catholics who sat in the house, seeing their party very weak, chose to be silent. The papal authority being abolished, and the service forbidden to be read in Latin, a confession of faith, agreeable to the principles of reformation, was adopted, and general directions were given in favour of the new doctrines.

So little, however, had the protestant Scots learned to profit by the odious appearance of that persecution which had martyred their brethren, that one of their new laws enacted death, as the punishment for a third offence against its directions as to church worship.

CHAP. III.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT. A. D. 1547—1603.

THE despotism of Henry VIII. was succeeded by a kind of nerveless aristocracy. A few potent noblemen, during the reign of Edward, struggled for power and profit, and left the people to be plundered and ruined by bribed senators and iniquitous judges. Edward undoubtedly had good dispositions; but except the spirited Latimer, who attempted by his plain but satirical discourses to open his eyes, he seemed hardly to have a single person about him who was not a party in supporting the prevailing system of corruption. The mildness of Cranmer rendered his advice ineffectual; and Somerset was governed by his wife, the vainest of women.

The corruption of the judges, though connived at by the great; could not escape the severe animadversions of Latimer, in his sermons before the king. "Now-a-days," says he, "the judges are afraid to hear a poor man against the rich; they will either pronounce against him, or delay the suit, so that he shall

not be able to go through with it. But the greateſt man in the realm cannot hurt the judge ſo much as a poor widow." He then relates the ſtory of a judge who was ſkinned for taking bribes, and his ſkin nailed to a chair for future judges to ſit in. "The magiſtrates," adds he, "ſhew favour to ſome, and will not ſuffer them to be put to ſhame." "Oh! he is ſuch a one's ſervant, I muſt not meddle with him. He is a great man, I dare not diſpleaſe him."—"Fie upon thee! art thou a judge, and wilt thou be afraid to give right judgment? Fear him not be he ever ſo great a man, but take care to do true juſtice."

The tyrannical laws againſt high treaſon, inſtituted under Henry the eighth, were aboliſhed by Edward. But this young and virtuous prince having ſoon paſſed away, the blood-thirſty Mary aſtoniſhed the world with her cruelties.

Under the long and brilliant reign of Elizabeth, England began to breathe anew; and the proteſtant religion, being once more eſtabliſhed, brought with it more freedom and toleration. The ſtar-chamber, that effectual inſtrument of the tyranny of the two Henries, yet continued to ſubſiſt; the inquiſitorial tribunal of the high commiſſion was even inſtituted; and the yoke of arbitrary power lay ſtill heavy on the ſubject. This, however, was rendered tolerable by the brilliancy of the reign, and affection of the people for a princeſs whoſe great talents rendered her worthy of being ranked among the greateſt ſovereigns.

The eſtabliſhed principles of the times, which attributed to the prince ſuch an unlimited power as was ſuppoſed to be the origin of all law, were unfavourable to liberty. The homilies publiſhed for the uſe of the clergy, inculcate a blind and paſſive obedience to the ſovereign; and Dr. Gifford was ſuſpended in 1584, for preaching up a limited obedience to the civil magiſtrate. It is remarkable that in all the hiſtorical plays of Shakeſpeare, where the manners and characters, and even the tranſactions of the ſeveral reigns are ſo exactly copied, there is ſcarcely any mention of

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civil liberty. In the elaborate panegyric of England, contained in the tragedy of Richard II. and the detail of its advantages, we have not a word of its civil conſtitution, as different from, or ſuperior to, that of other European kingdoms; an omiſſion which cannot be ſuppoſed in any Engliſh author, who wrote ſince the reſtoration, at leaſt ſince the revolution. It was only during the next generation that the noble principles of liberty took root, and ſpreading themſelves under the ſhelter of puritanical abſurdities, became faſhionable among the people.

Queen Elizabeth herſelf, indeed, was no friend to liberty, but watchfully checked thoſe faint dawnings of its ſplendor, which now and then pervaded the gloom of deſpotiſm; nor was the adminiſtration of juſtice in her time calculated to ſecure either life or property. Dr. Hayward having dedicated a book to the earl of Eſſex, in which the queen ſuppoſed there was treaſon, and that it was not written by himſelf, but by a more miſchievous perſon, aſked lord Bacon, whether he ought not to be racked to make him produce the author? To which his lordſhip replied, "nay, madam, he is a doctor, never rack his perſon, but rack his ſtyle. Let him have pen, ink, and paper, and help of books, and let him be enjoined to continue the ſtory where it breaks off, and I will undertake, by collating the ſtyles, to judge whether he were the author or no." Thus, had it not been for Bacon's humanity, or rather his wit, Dr. Hayward had been put to the rack for a moſt innocent performance. His real offence was his dedicating a book to that munificent patron of the learned, the earl of Eſſex, at a time when this nobleman lay under her majeſty's diſpleaſure. The queen's menace of trying and puniſhing this author for treaſon could have eaſily been executed, though the book had been ever ſo innocent. While ſo many terrors hung over the people, no jury durſt have acquitted a man, when the court was reſolved to have him condemned. The practice alſo of not confronting witneſſes with the priſoner, gave the crown lawyers all imaginable advantage againſt him.

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CHAP. IV.

LITERATURE. A. D. 1547—1603.

THOUGH the Engliſh language was much neglected in the middle of the ſixteenth century, great attention was beſtowed on eccleſiaſtical knowledge, nor was any rank deemed ſo exalted as to exclude the neceſſity of a thorough acquaintance with the learned tongues. Four ſucceſſive ſovereigns, Henry, Edward, Mary, and Elizabeth, might juſtly be ſtyled proficients in literature. To an addreſs of the univerſity of Cambridge, written in Greek, queen Elizabeth made an extemporary reply in the ſame language, and tranſlated into Engliſh the orations of Iſocrates. She anſwered in Latin, without premeditation, and in a very ſpirited manner, to the Polith ambaſſador, who had been wanting in reſpect to her. When ſhe had finiſhed, ſhe turned to her courtiers, and ſaid, with great emotion, "I have been forced this day to ſcour up my old Latin, that had long been ruſting." Elizabeth, even after ſhe was queen, did not entirely drop the ambition of appearing as an author; and, next to her deſire of ambition for beauty, this ſeems to have been the chief object of her vanity. She tranſlated Boethius, on the *Conſolation of Philoſophy*, in order to allay her grief, becauſe Henry IV. had changed his religion. As far as we can judge from Elizabeth's compoſitions, we may pronounce, that, notwithſtanding her application and excellent parts, her taſte in literature was but indifferent. In this partioular, ſhe was much inferior to her ſucceſſor, who was far from being a perfect model of eloquence.

The queen's example had very great influence. The advantages of learning gradually became as much the property of the laity as of the clergy; and ſoon after the reign of this intereſting princeſs, men attained

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to that ſtate of general improvement, in which they have ever ſince made progreſſive advances.

In the age of Elizabeth, learning was a paſſport to the moſt honourable and lucrative ſituations. Sir Thomas Small was raiſed from a profeſſorſhip at Cambridge to be, firſt, ambaſſador to France, and afterwards ſecretary of ſtate. The diſpatches of thoſe times, and among others, thoſe of Burleigh, are frequently interrupted by quotations from the Greek and Latin claſſics. Even the ladies of the court were adepts in ſcience, and valued themſelves more on their erudition, than on their rank and quality.

CHAP. V.

THE ARTS. A. D. 1547—1603.

ON the art of *agriculture* we need only obſerve, that the general ſtock of aliment was now increaſed by the diſcovery of potatoes. Captain Hawkins is ſaid to have brought this excellent root from Santa Fé, in New Spain, in 1565. Sir Walter Raleigh ſoon after planted it on his lands in Ireland; but, on eating the apple which is naufeous and unwholeſome, he had nearly conſigned the whole crop to deſtruction. The ſpade however diſcovered the real potatoe, and the root ſoon became a favourite eatable. It continued for a long time to be thought rather a ſpecies of dainty than of proviſion, and it was not ſuppoſed capable of preſerving the country where it was ſoftered from the attacks of famine.

The land of England, was at this time, both cheap and productive. The good biſhop Latimer, in one of his ſermons, gives the following account of the produce of a ſmall farm. "My father," ſays he, "was a yeoman, and had a farm of three or four pounds a year, upon which he tilled enough to keep half-a-dozen men. He had paſture for an hundred ſheep; and my mother milked thirty cows. He kept his ſon at ſchool till he went

purſuit of univerſal nature. The glancings of his eye are from heaven to earth, from earth to heaven. We behold him breaking the barriers of imaginary method. In the ſame ſcene, he deſcends from his meridian of the nobleſt tragic ſublimity, to puns and quibbles, to the meaneſt merriments of a plebeian farce. In the midſt of his dignity, he reſembles his own Richard II. the *ſkipping king*, who ſometimes diſcarding the ſtate of a monarch,

" Mingled his royalty with carping fools."

He ſeems not to have ſeen any impropriety, in the moſt abrupt tranſactions, from dukes to buffoons, from ſenators to ſailors, from counſellors to conſtables, and from kings to clowns.

No ſatires, properly ſo called, were written till towards the latter end of the queen's reign, and then but a few. Pictures drawn at large of the vices of the times, did not ſuit readers who loved to wander in the regions of artificial manners. The muſe, like the people, was too ſolemn and reſerved, too ceremonious and pedantic, to ſtoop to common life. Satire is the poetry of a nation highly poliſhed.

During the latter part of this period, a knowledge of *muſic* appears to have been an indiſpenſible accompliſhment in domeſtic life. " Being at a banquet," ſays Morley, " after ſupper was ended and muſic books brought to table, the miſtreſs of the houſe, according to cuſtom, preſented me with a part, earneſtly intreating me to ſing. After many excuſes, I proteſted that I could not, when every one began to wonder, and ſome whiſpered to others, enquiring how I had been brought up." Elizabeth was a very conſiderable performer on the lute, as well as on the virginals, an ill-ſhaped clumſy box, much inferior to a ſpinet, both in loudneſs and ſweetneſs. She loved alſo to hear loud muſic, and uſed to liſten during her meals to " twelve trumpets and two kettle drums, which, together with fifes, cornets, and ſide-drums, made the hall ring for half an hour together."

CHAP.

CHAP. VI.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES. A. D. 1547—1603.

JOHN LELAND, the firſt and laſt antiquary-royal in England, died in 1552. He was bred under William Lily, and ſtudied ſucceſſively at Cambridge, Oxford, and Paris. On entering into orders he became chaplain and librarian to Henry VIII. By virtue of the royal commiſſion, he ſearched various cathedrals and religious houſes for curious records and ſecrets of antiquity, in which employment he ſpent ſix years, travelling over every part of the kingdom. Having completed his labours, he was preſented to the valuable living of Haſely, in Oxfordſhire, and to a prebend in the church of Saliſbury. The Collectanea and Itinerary of Leland, the MSS. of which are in the Bodleian collection, are invaluable performances. This great man was inſane ſome time before his deceaſe, which happened opportunely, as Leland, who was a proteſtant, had been too active in monaſtic reſearches to have eſcaped the reſentment of the bigot Mary. Upon the whole, he may not unjuſtly be ſtyled the father of the Engliſh antiquaries.

Thomas Sternhold, whoſe verſion of David's Pſalms is well known, was groom of the robes to Henry VII. and Edward VI. and died in 1549. His coadjutor John Hopkins, a clergyman and ſchoolmaſter of Suffolk, is rather a better Engliſh poet than Sternhold, and tranſlated 58 of the pſalms, diſtinguiſhed by the initials of his name. Mr. Warton ſays, that this tranſlation, by aſcertaining the ſignification of many radical words, and by diſplaying original modes of the Engliſh language, may be juſtly deemed no inconſiderable monument of our ancient literature, if not of our ancient poetry. From the circumſtances of the times, however, and the growing refinements of ſcience, it muſt now be obſolete. If Sternhold has any merit,

it

it ariſes ſolely from preſerving the expreſſion of the proſe verſion. His weakneſs immediately appears, when he attempts to add or dilate. It is this circumſtance alone, which ſupports the two following well-known ſtanzas:

" The Lord deſcended from above,
" And bow'd the heavens high;
" And underneath his feet he caſt,
" The darkneſs of the ſky.
" On cherubs and on cherubim,
" Full royally he rode;
" And on the wings of all the winds
" Came flying all abroad."

Roger Aſcham, who was born in 1515, and bred at St. John's college, Cambridge, diſtinguiſhed himſelf ſo much by his excellence in the Greek and Latin tongues, that Henry VIII. and Edward VI. ſucceſſively allowed him a penſion to enable him to travel. In 1548 he was appointed tutor to Elizabeth, with whom he read moſt of Cicero's works, the orations of Iſocrates, the plays of Sophocles, and other ancient authors. After being employed in this honourable manner for two years, he returned to Cambridge, where he filled the office of public orator with great reputation. His attachment to dice and cock-fighting kept him miſerably poor. This poverty is noticed by Buchanan, in an epigram, which has been charged with diſplaying more wit than friendſhip. Aſcham had the ſingular good fortune, that though known to be a proteſtant, he eſcaped the anger of queen Mary, and even enjoyed her favour. Elizabeth too, when ſhe heard of his death, exclaimed that ſhe would rather have loſt ten thouſand pounds! This was a ſtrong teſtimony of the good-will of that œconomical princeſs. His talents were ſo blended with activity, that he wrote for Mary, in the ſpace of three days, letters to 47 princes, the meaneſt of whom was a cardinal. Mr. Aſcham's Latin epiſtles have been frequently printed, and are admired by all good judges of elegant compoſition. He died in 1568.

Sir

Sir *John Cheke*, a learned knight, born in 1511, after being bred at St. John's college, was elected Greek profeſſor at Cambridge, his native place. In 1544, his reputation ſtood ſo high, that he was appointed to be one of the tutors to prince Edward, who being himſelf a ſurpriſing ſcholar, had the higheſt ſenſe of his preceptor's merit. He not only conferred upon him the honour of knighthood, but made him ſoon after Chamberlain of the exchequer, and a member of the privy council. But alas! theſe bright days were ſoon overcaſt. The immature death of this amiable monarch, threw the whole proteſtant intereſt of this kingdom into the deepeſt conſternation. Sir John took part with the unfortunate lady Jane Grey. As a proteſtant and patriot he could not do otherwiſe. When lady Jane was crowned, he acted as her ſecretary during the nine days of her reign. For this he was confined in the tower, and deprived of a great part of his property. In 1554, he was ſet at liberty and went abroad, when his eſtate was confiſcated. Some time after he was ſeized at Bruſſels and conveyed to Antwerp, from whence he was ſent to London and committed again to the tower, where he was attended by ſome of the clergy, who candidly told him, that he muſt either recant or go to the ſtake. Sir John did not much reliſh the latter, and therefore ſigned his abjuration, and was received by cardinal Pole into the boſom of the catholic church. One pities the weakneſs of the man, but who can anſwer for himſelf in ſo trying a caſe? For the preſent he ſaved his life, but who was to reſtore him his peace? Mortified beyond expreſſion, he was obliged to be preſent at the examination of heretics, upon almoſt every occaſion; a bondage, to a generous mind, much worſe than death! He did not long ſurvive this extreme vexation, but died of grief, in the prime of his days, in 1557.

Dr. *Cole*, dean of St. Paul's, and a native of the Iſle of Wight, was a learned man, though not ſo amiable as his contemporary, ſir John Cheke. It was doubtleſs a mark of the eſteem in which his abilities were held,

held, that he was chosen to maintain a public disputation at Oxford, against Cranmer and Ridley, and when the former was destined to the stake for heresy, Cole preached and published the execution sermon. In short, he seems to have been at this time a leading man of a very leading party, as will further appear by a singular anecdote. Mary, the royal mistress of his fortunes, was determined, it seems, to act the same fatal tragedy among her protestant subjects in Ireland, as she had already done at home in Smithfield. For executing this purpose her commission was made out, and who should have the care of it but her trusty and well-beloved Doctor Cole? He undertook the charge, and in the progress of this business, making some stay at Chester, he was waited on by the mayor of that city. In the course of the conversation which passed between these two, the doctor was so full of his commission, that he could not forbear, as we say, to let the cat out of the bag. "I have that with me," saith he, producing a little box from his portmanteau, "which will lash the heretics of Ireland." His hostess, a Mrs. Edmonds, had the good luck to overhear this, and being more than half a heretic herself, and having a brother of that persuasion in Dublin, she became much troubled, and taking her opportunity whilst the doctor was gone down to compliment his worship the mayor to the door, she stept into the dean's apartment, took out the commission, and put a pack of cards into the box in its room. The doctor, having completed his civilities, returns to his chamber, and puts up the box without the least suspicion of what had happened. Soon after he set sail for Dublin, where he arrived in the month of December, 1558. Being introduced to the lord lieutenant and privy council, he began with a speech in form, to set forth the nature of his business, and then delivered his box with due ceremony. "What have we here?" said they, "This is nothing but a pack of cards." It is not easy to conceive the doctor's feelings at the ridiculous figure he now made. He could only say, that a commission he certainly had, but

but who had played him this trick he could not tell. "Why then, Mr. Dean," ſays his lordſhip, "you have nothing to do but to return to London, and get your commiſſion renewed, whilſt we in the mean time ſhuffle your cards." This ſarcaſtic advice, the doctor, no doubt with infinite chagrin, was obliged to take, though at ſo diſagreeable a ſeaſon of the year. But as they met with contrary winds and other vexatious delays, the queen died before the buſineſs could be accompliſhed. Her ſucceſſor, Elizabeth, was ſo well pleaſed with this ſtory, that ſhe allowed Mrs. Edmonds 40l. a-year, during her life, for this ſeaſonable and important piece of dexterity.

About the ſame time flouriſhed *Thomas Tuſſer*, a pleaſant poet as well as a good farmer, whoſe Georgics may be read without diſguſt by thoſe who have ſtudied the works of Heſiod, or even of the Mantuan bard. His work was entitled, "Five Hundred Points of good Huſbandry." His directions are entertaining, as they ſhew the cuſtoms of his age; and from the antiquity of his diction, he may properly be ſtyled the Engliſh Varro. The directions which he gives for the culture of a hop-garden are remarkably judicious, and finiſh thus:

"The hop, for its profit, I thus do exalt,
"It ſtrengtheneth drink, and it ſavoreth malt,
"And, being well brewed, long kept it will laſt,
"And drawing abide, if you draw not too faſt."

The viciſſitudes of this man's life have uncommon variety and novelty for the life of an author. He was firſt placed as a choriſter, or ſinging-boy, in the collegiate church of Wallingford, Berks. Having a fine voice, he was impreſſed for the royal chapel. He was ſoon afterwards admitted into the choir of ſaint Paul's cathedral in London, where he made great improvements under the inſtruction of John Redford the organiſt, a famous muſician. He was next ſent to [illegible] ſchool, where, at one chaſtiſement, he received fifty-three ſtripes of the rod, from the ſevere but celebrated maſter Nicholas Udall. In 1548, he was admitted

this converſation had been told, waited for ſome time with patience, but at length preſented his petition:

" I was promis'd, on a time, to have reaſon for my rhyme,
" From that time unto this ſeaſon, I've receiv'd nor rhyme nor reaſon."

The queen peruſed the ſarcaſtic complaint, frowned on Burleigh, and ordered the 100l. to be paid. Soon after fortune ſmiled on our bard. He married a rich wife, was made ſecretary of Ireland, and had a large grant of lands. Deſmond's revolt, however, proved his ruin. His plantations were deſtroyed, his houſe and one of his children were burnt, and he was forced to flee into England. Even thither misfortune accompanied him. Sidney was no more, and Spenſer, who had no other patron, is believed to have languiſhed and died in actual penury, in 1598. The following lines, in "*Mother Hubbard's Tale*," are ſuppoſed to have given diſguſt to Lord Burleigh.

" Full little doſt thou know that haſt not tried,
" What hell it is in ſuing long to bide;
" To ſpeed to-day; to be put back to-morrow;
" To feed on hope; to pine with care and ſorrow;
" To have thy prince's grace, yet want her peer's;
" To gain thy aſking, yet want many years;
" To fret thy ſoul with croſſes and with care;
" To eat thy heart with comfortleſs deſpair;
" To fawn, to crouch, to wait, to ride, to run;
" To ſpend, to give, to want, to be undone."

William Shakſpeare, the great poet of nature, was deſcended of a reputable family, at Stratford upon Avon, where his father carried on the wool trade. He was born in 1564, and educated at the free-ſchool in Stratford; but was taken early from ſchool, and employed in his father's buſineſs. At ſeventeen years of age he married, and became a parent before he was out of his minority. Having become acquainted with ſome perſons who followed the practice of deer ſtealing, he was prevailed upon to engage with them in robbing ſir Thomas Lucy's park. The injury being repeated,

that gentleman was provoked to enter a profecution againſt the delinquents; and Shakeſpeare, in revenge, made him the ſubject of a ballad, which, tradition ſays, was pointed with ſo much bitterneſs, that he found it neceſſary to quit the country. From Warwickſhire he came up to London, where he threw himſelf among the players, but he never made any figure as an actor, and Mr. Rowe ſays, that his higheſt character was the ghoſt in his own Hamlet. He therefore turned his genius to writing plays, which at firſt he adapted chiefly to the lower claſſes, of whom his audiences were generally compoſed. But when his performances gained the approbation of the queen, and the full protection of the court, he compoſed more poliſhed pieces. Soon after the acceſſion of James I. he was one of the head managers of the play-houſe,, and continued ſo for ſeveral years, till, having acquired a good fortune, he quitted the buſineſs of the ſtage, and ſpent the remainder of his days at his native town of Stratford, where he died in 1616. He was interred with his anceſtors, in the great church of Stratford, where there is a handſome monument erected for him. In 1740, another very noble one was raiſed to his memory, in Weſtminſter-abbey, the chief expence of which was defrayed by the profits ariſing from the performance of his tragedy of "Julius Cæſar," at the theatre royal in Drury lane. His judgment in managing the incidents, which he ſelected from ſuch hiſtorical books or romances as fell in his way, was equal to the boldneſs of his invention when he relied upon his own ſtrength.

In Scotland, the elegant *Mary Stuart* ſet a bright example to her ſubjects, in literary attainments. Not contented with light and graceful accompliſhments, with which the court of Catherine de Medicis could ſupply her, ſhe ſtudied the dead languages; and, at a very early age, aſtoniſhed the king and court, by pronouncing an oration, compoſed by herſelf, in claſſical Latin. Her ſkill in poetry was great, and her elegiac compoſitions were truly affecting.

James Crichton, a defcendant from the ancient Scottiſh kings, of whom ſo many wonderful things are recorded as to have procured him the name of "The admirable Crichton," was born in Perthſhire, in 1560, and educated at St. Andrew's. Before he was twenty years of age, he had gone through the whole circle of ſciences, and was, beſides, an accompliſhed gentleman. He now began his travels, and reaching Paris, challenged all the learned men to diſpute with him in any art or ſcience, and in any language ancient or modern. Having managed this diſputation with great ſucceſs, from nine in the morning till ſix at night, the profeſſors preſented him with a diamond ring, and a purſe of gold. The next day he went to a tilting match, and, in preſence of the court, carried the prize fifteen times ſucceſſively. From thence he went to Rome, where he diſputed in the preſence of the pope and the cardinals. At Venice he obtained a complete victory over the followers of Ariſtotle. At Mantua, in 1581, this bright but ſhort lived meteor was extinguiſhed. A prize-fighter protected by the duke, having ſlain three antagoniſts, his noble patron wiſhed to be rid of ſo dangerous an inmate. Crichton offered to fight him before the Mantuan court, killed him, and, by dividing the rich prize which he gained by his ſucceſs among the widows of the ſlain champions, raiſed the applauſe of the people even to adoration. He became the darling of the Italian ladies, and the duke appointed him preceptor to his only ſon Vincentio Gonzaga, a very licentious prince. A tragic ſcene too ſoon followed this comedy. Crichton was beloved by a lady of rank, and exquiſite beauty, on whom Vincentio had harboured deſigns in vain. The happy lover was aſſailed at his miſtreſs's door by a party of maſqued bravoes. He repulſed their united force with eaſe, when the leader loſing his ſword, begged for life, and, unmaſking, ſhewed the face of his pupil, the young duke. Awed at the ſight, Crichton fell on his knees, and holding his ſword by the point, preſented it to the worthleſs youth, who,

who, guided by the moſt diabolical malice and envy, ſtabbed him with his own weapon to the heart.

George Buchanan, an eminent Scotiſh poet and hiſtorian, who was born in 1506, and died in 1582, in the celebrated hiſtory of his own country has united the force and brevity of Salluſt with the elegance and perſpicuity of Livy. His ſevere remarks, however, on the errors of the unfortunate Mary, raiſed him many foes, and are by no means laudable, as they bear the marks of ſelf-intereſt, partiality, and malice againſt a woman in diſtreſs. Every man of taſte knows with what admirable ſkill and genius he tranſlated the Pſalms into Latin verſe. His great talents procured him the honourable appointment of preceptor to James VI. of Scotland. When he was reproached with having made his majeſty a pedant; "It is a wonder," ſaid he, "that I have made ſo much of him." He died in more affluence than men of wit and learning commonly attain, having conſiderable poſts in Scotland, and a penſion from Elizabeth. James VI. having ſhewn to his old tutor an unpardonable neglect, during his illneſs, at laſt condeſcended to ſend a nobleman to enquire after his health. "Tell his majeſty," replied the irritated ſage, "that I am going to a place, where *king's fleſh is veniſon*."——"His happy genius," ſays Dr. Robertſon, "equally formed to excel in proſe or verſe, more various, more original, and more elegant than that of almoſt any other modern who writes in Latin, reflects the greateſt luſtre on his country."

With regard to the females of this age, *Margaret*, daughter to ſir Thomas More, and afterwards the wife of William Roper, eſq. was the moſt learned woman of her time, having tranſlated from the Greek Euſebius's Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory. The tender affection which this accompliſhed lady bore to her father ſurvived his cataſtrophe. She purchaſed his head from thoſe who guarded it on the tower of London-bridge, and was interred with that melancholy relic in her hand. The ſkull may ſtill be ſeen in a vault of St. Dun-

ſtan's church, Canterbury, where Margaret Roper was buried.

The houſe of ſir Anthony Cook was fruitful in accompliſhed females. Mildred, the elder, afterwards lady Burleigh, was eminent for her learning, piety, and charity. The knight's ſecond daughter, Anne, on account of her ſenſe and erudition, was appointed governeſs to Edward VI. At the age of twenty-two, ſhe publiſhed twenty-five ſermons, which ſhe had tranſlated from the Italian tongue. She afterwards became the wife of Sir Nicholas Bacon. Catharine alſo, another child of this fortunate parent, who married Sir Henry Killigrew, was celebrated for her knowledge of the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin languages.

As lady Jane Grey was one of the moſt unfortunate, ſo was ſhe one of the moſt accompliſhed and learned women of her age: when ſhe was ſentenced to die, on the prevalence of Mary's party, becauſe ſhe had been proclaimed queen of England, ſhe wrote a Greek letter to her ſiſter, on the evening previous to her death.

CHAP. VII.

COMMERCE. A. D. 1547—1603.

QUEEN Elizabeth, conſcious what addition both to the ſtrength and wealth of the nation muſt accrue from the extenſion of her trade, gave great encouragement both to commerce and manufactures. Her private intereſt and the importunity of her avaricious favourites, betrayed her into the meaſure of granting monopolies, and of creating excluſive companies with excluſive privileges, fatal to the intereſt of her moſt induſtrious ſubjects.

Before the reign of Elizabeth, the Engliſh princes had uſually recourſe to the city of Antwerp for voluntary loans; and their credit was ſo low, that beſides paying the high intereſt of ten or twelve per cent. they were obliged to make the city of London join in the ſecurity.

ſecurity. That great and enterpriſing merchant, ſir Thomas Greſham, engaged the company of merchant-adventurers to grant a loan to the queen; and as the money was regularly repaid, her credit by degrees eſtabliſhed itſelf in the city, and ſhe ſhook off this dependance on foreigners. At the ſame time the merchants of the Hanſe towns, or trading cities of the netherlands, withdrew from the Engliſh commerce, hoping that neceſſity would occaſion their recal. This weak ſtep only tended to convince the Engliſh merchants that they could carry on trade without their aſſiſtance. Having therefore built ſhips, they ſoon found the ſweets of thoſe additional profits, which this new independence afforded them. The exports from England to the Hanſe towns were wool, cloths, ſaffron, lead, tin, and cheeſe; while ſhe received from them, jewels, wrought ſilks, cloth of gold and ſilver, ſpices, drugs, linen, tapeſtry, madder, hops, glaſſes, arms, ammunition, and houſehold furniture.

After the death of John Baſilides, his ſon Theodore revoked the patent which the Engliſh enjoyed for a *monopoly of the Ruſſian trade*. When the queen remonſtrated againſt this innovation, he told her miniſters, that trade, which by the laws of nations ought to be common to all, ſhould not be converted into a monopoly for the private gain of a few. So much juſter notions of commerce were entertained by *this barbarian* than appear in the conduct of the renowned queen Elizabeth! Theodore, however, continued ſome privileges to the Engliſh, on account of their being the diſcoverers of the communication between Europe and his country.

The trade of Turkey, which commenced about the year 1583, was immediately confined to a company by queen Elizabeth. Before that time, the grand ſeignior had always conceived England to be a dependant province of France.

In 1600, the Engliſh Eaſt-India company received its firſt formation, that trade being till then in the hands of the Portugueſe, in conſequence of their having

ing firſt diſcovered the paſſage to India by the Cape of Good Hope. Factories were eſtabliſhed in China, Japan, India, Amboyna, Java, and Sumatra.

For ſeveral years after the commencement of this period, the ſtate of the Engliſh manufactures was low, as foreign wares of almoſt all kinds had the preference. In 1567 there were found, on enquiry, to be 4851 ſtrangers of all nations in London, of whom 3838 were Flemings, and only 58 Scots. The perſecutions in France and the low countries drove afterwards a greater number of foreigners into England, by whom commerce and manufactures were very much improved. It was then that ſir Thomas Greſham built, at his own charge, for the reception of merchants, the magnificent fabric of the exchange, which the queen viſited, and gave it the appellation of the royal exchange.

The navy of this country, at the deceaſe of the queen, conſiſted of forty-two veſſels. But when we conſider that none of theſe ſhips carried above forty guns; that four only came up to that number; that there were but two ſhips of a thouſand tons; and twenty-three below five hundred, ſome of fifty, and ſome even of twenty tons; and that the whole number of guns belonging to the fleet was ſeven hundred and ſeventy-four; we muſt entertain a contemptible idea of the Engliſh navy, compared to the force which it has now attained.

Crown and *half-crown* pieces of ſilver became for the firſt time current money, in the reign of Edward VI. The ſixpenny piece too then appeared in England.

During the two firſt years of her active government, Elizabeth coined ſo much money, that ſhe found herſelf enabled, in 1560, to utter a proclamation, by which the bad coin was reduced to its real value. "Next to the reformation of religion," ſays the ingenious Mr. Leake, "nothing could be more glorious or beneficial to the kingdom, than the reformation of the money." The parliament congratulated Elizabeth upon it, and it makes a ſtriking part of the laudatory inſcription on her tomb at Weſtminſter.

In

In Scotland, Mary Stuart, on her marriage with lord Darnley, ſtruck ſilver coins impreſſed with two thiſtles, and "*Maria et Henricus, Dei Gratia, Regina et Rex Scotorum.*" The reverſe of theſe pieces was remarkable, being a crowned tree, ſuppoſed to relate to a curious yew in the park of the earl of Lenox, father to lord Darnley, with the motto "*Dat gloria vires.*" Glory gives ſtrength.

CHAP. VIII.

MANNERS. A. D. 1547—1603.

THE nobility in this age ſtill ſupported, in ſome degree, the ancient magnificence in their hoſpitality, and in the number of their retainers. The queen, however, found it prudent to retrench, by proclamation, their expences in this laſt particular. The expence of hoſpitality ſhe ſomewhat encouraged by the frequent viſits ſhe paid her nobility, and the ſumptuous feaſts which ſhe received from them. The earl of Leiceſter gave her an entertainment in Kenilworth-caſtle, which was extraordinary for expence and magnificence. Among other particulars, we are told, that 365 hogſheads of beer were drank at it. The earl had fortified this caſtle, which contained arms for ten thouſand men. The earl of Derby had a family conſiſting of 240 ſervants. Burleigh, though he was frugal, and had no paternal eſtate, kept a family conſiſting of an hundred ſervants. Burleigh entertained the queen twelve ſeveral times in his country-houſe, where ſhe remained four, or five weeks at a time. Each viſit coſt him two or three thouſand pounds.

Among the other ſpecies of luxury, that of apparel began much to increaſe during this age; and the queen thought proper to reſtrain it by proclamation. Her example was very little conformable to her edicts. As no woman was ever more conceited of her beauty, or more deſirous of making impreſſion on the hearts

of beholders, no one ever went to a greater extravagance in apparel, or ſtudied more the variety and richneſs of her dreſſes. She appeared almoſt every day in a different habit, and tried all the ſeveral modes by which ſhe hoped to render herſelf agreeable. She was alſo ſo fond of her clothes, that ſhe never could part with any of them; and at her death ſhe had in her wardrobe all the different habits, to the number of three thouſand, which ſhe had ever worn.

Perfumed gloves, ornamented with tufts of roſe-coloured ſilk, were ſo much the delight of Elizabeth, that ſhe would always be drawn with her favourite pair, preſented by the earl of Oxford, on his return from Italy. Silk ſtockings, too, came in with Elizabeth. Mrs. Montague, her ſilk-woman, having preſented her with a pair of black ſilk ſtockings, ſhe never afterwards wore cloth hoſe. Knit ſtockings were firſt introduced to the Engliſh court by William, earl of Pembroke.

The fardingale, a Spaniſh petticoat, was introduced during the connection of Philip and Mary. Howel intimates that this faſhion was invented to ſcreen unlicenſed pregnancy.

The pocket-handkerchiefs of the ladies were frequently wrought with gold and ſilver. In the old ballad of George Barnwell, it is ſaid of Milwood,

" A handkerchief ſhe had,
" All wrought with beaten gold;
" Which ſhe to ſtay her trickling tears,
" Before her eyes did hold."

Ruffs, made of lawn and cambric, and ſtiffened with yellow ſtarch, reaching to the upper part of the head behind, were worn both by ladies and gentlemen.

" When I ſaw queen Elizabeth," ſays Hentzner, " ſhe was in her 67th year, and had in her ears two pearls with very rich drops. She wore falſe *red hair*, and her boſom was uncovered. She was dreſſed in white ſilk, bordered with pearls of the ſize of beans, and over it a mantle of black ſilk, ſhot with ſilver threads; and, inſtead of a chain, ſhe had an oblong collar

collar of gold and jewels. Whenever she turned her face, as she went along, every one fell down on his knees." Her father had been treated with the same deference. James I. suffered his courtiers to omit it;—one instance, among a thousand, of the superiority of the best of the Tudors, in disposition, to the most imperious of the Stuarts.

The beard, in the reign of Mary, throve abundantly. Those of bishop Gardiner and of cardinal Pole, in their portraits, are of a most uncommon size. The beard was sometimes used in the sixteenth century as a *tooth-pick case*. The celebrated admiral Coligni always wore his tooth-pick in his beard.

Among the customs of this age, there was none more prominent, nor more lasting than that of smoaking tobacco. This herb reached England in 1586, imported by the remains of sir Walter Raleigh's unfortunate settlers in Virginia. The knight himself was one of its first admirers, but for some time preserved great secrecy in his attachment, till the foible was discovered by a ridiculous accident. Sir Walter was enjoying his pipe in solitude, forgetful that he had ordered his servant to attend him with a goblet of ale. The faithful domestic suddenly entering the study, and finding, as he thought, his master's brains on fire, and evaporating in smoke and flame through his nostrils, did his utmost to extinguish the conflagration, by emptying the goblet on his master's head; and rushing out of the room, alarmed the family with an account of the frightful scene he had witnessed. Sir Walter then made no secret of taking tobacco, and many years afterwards he smoked two pipes publicly on the scaffold.

In the course of this period, theatrical representations furnished amusement to all ranks. When the regular dramatic pieces had once gained possession of the stage, their progress was rapid. The people hailed them as mines of pleasure, and were never satiated with the ores they produced. The earliest patent for acting plays, is dated in 1574; but in the beginning

of the next century, at leaſt fifteen licenſed theatres were open to the inhabitants of London. The beſt plays, particularly thoſe of Shakeſpeare, were acted at the Blackfriars theatre, which was crowded with people of faſhion. The price of admittance to the beſt places at the ſuperior theatres was, as late as 1614, only one ſhilling; and at the inferior ones, one penny or two pence would gain admiſſion to a pretty good place. Before the exhibition began, three flourithes, or pieces of muſic were played. The inſtruments chiefly uſed were trumpets, cornets, and hautboys. The perſon who ſpoke the prologue was uſhered in by trumpets, and uſually wore a long black velvet cloak. An epilogue was not looked on as a neceſſary appendage to a play. Plays, in the early days of the drama, began about one in the afternoon, and laſted generally about two hours. One dramatic piece compoſed the whole entertainment of the day. When the author ſold his play to the ſtage, the cuſtomary price was ſix guineas.

CHAP. IX.

INCIDENTS AND CURIOUS PARTICULARS. A. D. 1547—1603.

IN 1553, Edward VI. incorporated Bethlem and Bridewell hoſpitals in the metropolis, including a ſchool for poor boys, with certain regulations, under the patronage of the city of London.

In 1554, during the heat of queen Mary's perſecution, Elizabeth was in a very unpleaſant ſtate. Being once urged to explain her ſentiments concerning the real preſence, ſhe made the following extemporary reply:

" Chriſt was the word that ſpake it,
" He took the bread and brake it,
" And what the word did make it,
" I do believe and take it."

She was, however, under the diſagreeable neceſſity to hear maſs and ſubmit to confeſſion. Gardiner, biſhop

of

of Wincheſter, had once actually procured a warrant for her death, ſigned by ſome of the privy council; but the queen being told of it, was obliged to forbid the execution.

Elizabeth loved the pomp of the Romiſh ſervice, and retained in her church ordinances ſome of thoſe veſtments which her brother Edward had diſmiſſed; ſhe expunged from the Litany, "*From the tyranny of the Biſhop of Rome, and all his deteſtable enormities, Good Lord deliver us!*" She has been known to call out from her cloſet to her chaplain, in the middle of a ſermon, to deſiſt from condemning the ſign of the croſs; ſhe openly thanked one of her divines for preaching on behalf of the real preſence; ſhe hated that the clergy ſhould marry, and, but for Cecil, would have forbidden them. On the other hand, ſhe is ſaid to have ſeverely reprimanded a clergyman for placing before her at church a ritual ornamented with paintings of ſaints, and other illuminations.

In 1567, Captain Frobiſher, in his purſuit of the North-Weſt paſſage, fell in with the Straights which lead to Hudſon's bay, and diſcovered the Weſtern coaſt of Greenland. He brought with him to England a poor ſavage, who, unconſcious of the advantage of civilization, pined away through regret for his native ſnows.

In 1569, the Italian method of book-keeping was taught in England, by James Peele. His work, printed in the black letter, is ſtill extant; and its inſtructions, though verboſe, are practical.

In 1582, a ſupply of water was brought by Peter Morris, a freeman of London, to the higheſt part of the city. He laid pipes over the tower of St. Magnus.

In 1588, the *Cheſt at Chatham* was eſtabliſhed, which, by means of a ſmall deduction from the pay of every ſeaman, provides an annual allowance for ſuch as may chance to be wounded.

In 1590, Elizabeth formed an eſtabliſhment at Weſtminſter, for forty boys, in every ſpecies of claſſical learning. The progreſs of Weſtminſter ſchool has been

been ſteady and fortunate. Its maſters have been, and are ſtill, as much diſtinguiſhed for their learning, as the ſtudents for ſpirit and urbanity.

The univerſity of Edinburgh was founded, in 1580, by James VI. on the ſupplication of the magiſtrates ruling that metropolis; who, with the moſt opulent citizens, were the benefactors and endowers, aided by donations of religious houſes and lands. Theſe are accordingly the ſole patrons and viſitors, though James ſeems to have wiſhed to be the ſole patron, and to have it called "King James's college."

The Mariſchal college at Aberdeen was founded, in 1594, by George, earl Mariſchal, who endowed it with a conſiderable landed eſtate. The expence of the building was chiefly defrayed by the town of Aberdeen.

In 1589, coaches were firſt introduced into England. The hackney act paſſed in 1693, and hackney coaches were increaſed to 1000, in 1770.

BOOK VIII.

CHAP. I.

MILITARY HISTORY FROM THE ACCESSION OF JAMES VI. IN 1603, TO THE REVOLUTION, IN 1688.

THE crown of England was never tranſmitted from father to ſon with greater tranquillity, than it paſſed from the family of Tudor to that of Stewart. James VI. king of Scotland, ſon of the unfortunate Mary queen of Scots, ſucceeded Elizabeth to the throne of England, by the title of James I. and as his hereditary right was unqueſtionable, and the late queen, with her dying breath, had recogniſed the title of her kinſman, his acceſſion was univerſally approved of by all orders of the ſtate.

James was not inſenſible to the great flow of affection which appeared in his new ſubjects, and being himſelf of an affectionate temper, he ſeems to have been in haſte to make them ſome return of kindneſs and good offices. In ſix weeks after his entrance into the kingdom, he is computed to have beſtowed knighthood on no leſs than 237 perſons; and titles of all kinds became ſo common, that they were *ſcarcely a mark of diſtinction*. But as the king's favours were ſhared out to the Scottiſh courtiers who attended him to England, proportionably in greater numbers than to the Engliſh, the latter did not fail to murmur. It muſt, however, be owned, in juſtice to the new king, that he left almoſt all the chief offices in the hands of Elizabeth's miniſters, and truſted the conduct of political

tal concerns, both foreign and domeſtic, to his Engliſh ſubjects.

Henry IV. of France, in conjunction with the United Provinces, and the northern crowns, now propoſed a league to depreſs the exorbitant power of the houſe of Auſtria. But the genius of the Engliſh monarch not being equal to ſuch vaſt enterpriſes, and the love of peace being his ruling paſſion, he declined it.

Amidſt this tranquillity, a conſpiracy was carried on to ſubvert the government, and to ſeat on the throne the lady Arabella Stewart, the king's near relation by the family of Lenox, and deſcended equally from Henry VII. Lord Grey, lord Cobham, ſir Walter Raleigh, and many other perſons of conſideration, were concerned in this dangerous combination. Upon its being diſcovered, ſome of them were executed. The lords Cobham and Grey were pardoned, after they had laid their heads on the block; and ſir Walter Raleigh, having received a reſpite, was remanded to his confinement, in which he continued for ſeveral years.

It was an advantage to this monarch at the beginning of his reign, that the courts of Rome and Spain were thought to be his enemies; and this opinion was increaſed by the diſcovery and defeat of the gunpowder treaſon. This was a ſcheme of the Roman catholics to cut off at one blow the king, lords, and commons, at the meeting of parliament, when it was alſo expected that the queen and prince of Wales would be preſent. About ten days before the meeting, a Roman catholic peer received a letter which had been delivered to his ſervant by an unknown hand, earneſtly adviſing him not to attend. The nobleman, though he conſidered the letter as a fooliſh attempt to frighten and ridicule him, thought proper to lay it before the king, who ſtudying the contents with more attention, began to ſuſpect ſome dangerous contrivance by gun-powder, and ordered all the vaults below the houſe of parliament to be inſpected. A juſtice of peace was, therefore, ſent with proper attendants, who finding one

Faux

Faux before the door of the upper houſe, immediately ſeized him, and at the ſame time diſcovered in the vault 36 barrels of powder, which had been carefully concealed under faggots and piles of wood. The match, and every thing proper for ſetting fire to the train, were found in Faux's pocket, whoſe countenance beſpoke his ſavage diſpoſition, and who, after regretting that he had loſt the opportunity of deſtroying ſo many heretics, made a full diſcovery. The conſpirators, who never exceeded 80 in number, being ſeized by the country people, confeſſed their guilt, and were executed in different parts of England. Notwithſtanding this horrid crime, the bigotted catholics were ſo devoted to Garnet a jeſuit, one of the conſpirators, that they fancied miracles to be wrought by his blood, and in Spain he was conſidered as a martyr.

James was much blamed for his partiality to favourites. His firſt was Robert Carr, a private Scottiſh gentleman, who was created earl of Somerſet. He married the counteſs of Eſſex, who had obtained a divorce from her huſband, and was with her found guilty of poiſoning ſir Thomas Overbury in the Tower. The king, however, pardoned them both. His next favourite was George Villiers, a private Engliſh gentleman, who, upon Somerſet's diſgrace, was admitted to an unuſual ſhare of favour and familiarity with his ſovereign.

Having formed a ſyſtem of policy for attaching himſelf to the court of Spain, that it might aſſiſt him in recovering the palatinate, James ſacrificed to that ſyſtem the brave ſir Walter Raleigh, on a charge of having committed hoſtilities againſt the Spaniſh ſettlements in the Weſt Indies. This great man finding his fate inevitable, collected all his courage, and acted the concluding ſcene of his life with bravery and reſolution. Feeling the edge of the axe by which he was to be beheaded, he ſaid, "'Tis a ſharp remedy, but a ſure one, for all ills." He harangued the people in a calm and eloquent manner, and laying his head upon the block, with the utmoſt compoſure, received the fatal blow.

The

The king having loſt his eldeſt ſon Henry prince of Wales, who had an invincible antipathy to a popiſh match, caſt his eyes upon the infanta of Spain, as a proper wife for his ſon Charles, who had ſucceeded to that principality. Buckingham, who was a favorite both with the father and the ſon, availing himſelf of the prince's romantic humour, propoſed a ſecret expedition to the court of Madrid, as an act of gallantry which would render him more agreeable to the infanta, and give him an opportunity of ſeeing her perſon before the irrevocable union took place. The mind of the young prince was immediately inflamed with the idea, and, in an imprudent moment of conviviality, they ſet out for Madrid, in diſguiſe, with only three attendants. As they paſſed through Paris, they ventured to go to a ball at court, where Charles ſaw the princeſs Henrietta, whom he afterwards eſpouſed, and who was at that time in the bloom of youth and beauty. In eleven days after their departure from London, they arrived at Madrid, and ſurpriſed every body by a ſtep ſo unuſual among great princes. The young prince was received by the Spaniſh monarch with every token of reſpect and attention, and by his prudent demeanour, during his reſidence there, joined to his youth and advantageous figure, endeared himſelf to the whole court. Buckingham, however, who had rendered himſelf odious to the Spaniards by his arrogance, dreading the influence which that nation would acquire after the arrival of the infanta, uſed all his credit to prevent the match, when Charles, after acting a ſolemn farce of courtſhip, returned without his bride; and had it not been for the royal partiality in his favour, the earl of Briſtol, then ambaſſador in Spain, would have brought the duke of Buckingham to the block.

The oppoſition made by parliament to the king's prerogative, which James exerted in many inſtances to an unuſual degree, was at this time carried to a great height, and laid the foundation of thoſe fatal ſtruggles between the crown and people, which took place in the

the ſubſequent reign. The two parties, called *Whigs* and *Tories*, were now formed.

James died in 1625, in the 59th year of his age, after a reign over England of twenty two years. His reign over Scotland was almoſt of equal duration with his life. In all hiſtory, it would be difficult to find a reign leſs illuſtrious, yet more unblemiſhed, than that of James in both kingdoms. While he imagined that he was only maintaining his own authority, he encroached on the liberties of his people; and while he endeavoured, by an exact neutrality, to acquire the good-will of all his neighbours, he was able to preſerve fully the eſteem of none. His intentions were juſt, but more adapted to the conduct of private life, than to the government of a great nation. His generoſity bordered on profuſion, his learning on pedantry, his pacific diſpoſition on puſillanimity, his wiſdom on cunning, his friendſhip on light fancy and boyiſh fondneſs.

Charles I. was born at Dunfermling, in Scotland, in 1600, and ſucceeded his father James I. in 1625, when he married Henrietta of France, the daughter of Henry IV. The ſpirit of the people had forced the late king into a breach with Spain, and Charles gave ſo early indications of his deſpotic temper, that the parliament was remiſs in furniſhing him with money for carrying on the war. Having ſent troops to aſſiſt the French calviniſts, they were ſo ill ſupported, that Rochelle was reduced to extremity, by which the proteſtant intereſt received an irrecoverable blow in France. The blame of all the public miſcarriages was thrown upon Buckingham, who ſheltered himſelf under the royal protection, till he was aſſaſſinated by one Felton, a ſubaltern officer, as he was ready to embark for the relief of Rochelle, which ſoon after ſurrendered to cardinal Richlieu.

The death of the duke of Buckingham did not deter Charles from his arbitrary proceedings, which the Engliſh patriots in that enlightened age, juſtly conſidered as ſo many acts of tyranny. Without authority

of parliament, he laid arbitrary impoſitions upon trade, which were refuſed to be paid by many of the merchants and members of the houſe of commons. Some of them were impriſoned, and the judges were checked for admitting them to bail. The houſe of commons reſented thoſe proceedings by drawing up a proteſt, and denying admittance to the gentleman-uſher of the black rod, who came to adjourn them till it was finiſhed. This ſerved only to widen the breach, and the king diſſolved the parliament; after which he exhibited informations againſt nine of the moſt eminent members, among whom was the great Mr. Selden, who was as much diſtinguiſhed by his love of liberty, as by his uncommon erudition. They objected to the juriſdiction of the court, but their plea was over-ruled, and they were ſent to priſon during the king's pleaſure.

Every thing now operated towards the deſtruction of Charles. The commons would vote no ſupplies without ſome redreſs of the national grievances, upon which Charles, preſuming on what had been practiſed in reigns when the principles of liberty were leſs underſtood, levied money upon monopolies of ſalt, ſoap, &c. and raiſed various taxes without authority of parliament.

About this time a great number of the puritans, tired of the reſtraint they experienced in England, embarked for America, and there laid the foundations of a government, which poſſeſſed all the liberty, both civil and religious, of which they found themſelves bereaved in their native country. But at length their enemies prevailed on the king to put a ſtop to the peregrinations of theſe devotees. As John Hampden, John Pym, and Oliver Cromwell, were among thoſe who were prevented, by an order of council, from going in ſome ſhips that lay ready to ſail, the king had afterwards full leiſure to repent this exerciſe of his authority.

Not long after, John Hampden acquired, by his ſpirit and courage, univerſal popularity throughout the nation. Having been rated at twenty ſhillings ſhip-money,

money, for an eſtate which he poſſeſſed in the county of Buckingham, he reſolved rather than tamely ſubmit to ſo illegal an impoſition, to ſtand a legal proſecution. The caſe was argued during twelve days, in the Exchequer Chamber, before all the judges of England. But though the arguments appeared to be in favour of Hampden, a majority of judges gave ſentence for the crown. Hampden, however, obtained, by the trial, the end for which he had ſo generouſly ſacrificed his ſafety and quiet. The people were rouſed from their lethargy, and became ſenſible of the danger to which their liberties were expoſed.

In 1642, the king, in a ſolemn manner, ſet up his ſtandard at Nottingham; and in 1645, was fought the famous battle of Naſeby, which decided the quarrel between the king and the parliament, the forces of the latter having gained a complete victory. Upon the approach of lord Fairfax, to lay ſiege to Oxford, his majeſty made his eſcape from thence, and threw himſelf into the hands of the Scottiſh army. Oxford ſurrendered in 1646, when the few remaining garriſons ſoon followed the example. The parliament then conſulted how to get the king out of the hands of the Scots, and to ſend them back into their own country. After ſeveral debates about the diſpoſal of his perſon, the Scots having received 200,000l. delivered him up to the commiſſioners of the parliament of England, who were ſent down to Newcaſtle to receive him. The ſame day their army began to march for Scotland, and the king was conducted to Holmby-houſe, in Northamptonſhire. He was afterwards removed to Hampton-court, from whence he made his eſcape, and fled to the Iſle of Wight. He had not been long there, when a party of Cromwell's ſoldiers ſeized him, and conveyed him firſt to Hurſt-caſtle, from thence to Windſor, and at laſt to London. Having carried him before a court of Juſtice of their own erecting, after an extraordinary trial, they paſſed ſentence of death upon him, and he was beheaded before his own palace, at Whitehall, on the 30th of

January, 1649, in the 49th year of his age, and the 24th of his reign.

Charles had many virtues, but he ſuffered himſelf to be guided by counſellors much inferior to himſelf in knowledge and judgment; whilſt he paid too much deference to the advice of his conſort, who was ſuperſtitiouſly attached to the errors of popery.

The diſſolution of the monarchy in England, ſoon followed the death of their monarch. The peers met, and ſent down their votes, as uſual, to the commons, who did not deign to take the leaſt notice of them; and in a few days, the lower houſe paſſed a vote, that the houſe of peers was uſeleſs and dangerous, and was therefore to be aboliſhed. The commons then ordered a new great ſeal to be engraved, on which that aſſembly was repreſented, with this legend, *On the firſt year of freedom, by God's bleſſing, reſtored*, 1649. And the forms of all public buſineſs were changed, from the king's name, to that of the keepers of the liberties of England.

The confuſions which overſpread England after the death of Charles, and the unſettled humours of the people, were only to be controuled by the great influence, both civil and military, acquired by Oliver Cromwell. This man, ſuited to the age in which he lived, and to that alone, was equally qualified to gain the affection and confidence of men, by what was mean, vulgar, and ridiculous in his character, as to command their obedience by what was great, daring and enterpriſing. Familiar even to buffoonery with the meaneſt centinel, he never loſt his authority. Tranſported to a degree of madneſs with religious extaſies, he never forgot the political purpoſes, to which that might ſerve. So that in a ſhort time, the commonwealth, of which, even at this early period, he was the chief conductor, found every thing compoſed into a ſeeming tranquillity.

Being the ſon of a private gentleman, at Huntingdon, Cromwell was choſen member for Cambridge in the long parliament, and being endowed with unſhaken intrepidity,

intrepidity, and much diſſimulation, he roſe, through the gradations of preferment, to the poſt of lieutenant-general under Fairfax. In 1649 he was ſent general into Ireland, when, in about nine months, he ſubdued almoſt that whole kingdom, and leaving his ſon-in-law, Ireton, to complete the conqueſt, returned to England. In 1650, he was appointed commander in chief of all the commonwealth, and ſet out on his march againſt the Scots, who had eſpouſed the royal cauſe, and placed young Charles, the ſon of their late monarch, on the throne. In 1651, he totally defeated the royaliſts at Worceſter, when the king himſelf was obliged to flee.

Numberleſs were the difficulties which Charles encountered in order to elude the ſearch of his enemies. At Boſcobel, a lone houſe on the borders of Staffordſhire, he was ſecreted by one Penderell, a farmer. And for his better concealment, he got up into an oak, where he ſheltered himſelf twenty-four hours. This tree was afterwards denominated *The Royal Oak*; and for many years was regarded by the neighbourhood with great veneration. At length, after a variety of adventures and ſufferings, he landed ſafely at Feſ-camp, in Normandy, no leſs than forty perſons having at different times been privy to his eſcape.

Admiral Blake, and other naval officers, now carried the terror of the Engliſh name by ſea to all quarters of the globe, while Cromwell, having but little employment, began to be afraid that his ſervices would be forgotten. He went therefore without any ceremony, with about 300 muſqueteers, and diſſolved the parliament, after having loaded the members with the vileſt reproaches, for their tyranny, ambition, oppreſſion, and robbery of the public. He next annihilated the council of ſtate, with whom the executive power was lodged, and transferred the adminiſtration of government to 140 perſons whom he ſummoned to Whitehall. Being in a ſhort time declared *lord protector of the commonwealth*, Cromwell exerciſed greater power under that title, than had ever been annexed to the

the regal dignity. He gave the command of all the forces in Scotland to general Monk, and sent his own son, Henry, to govern Ireland.

The court of Spain having long courted in vain the friendship of the successful usurper, applied at last to king Charles, who had removed his small court to Bruges; and that prince raised four regiments of his own subjects, whom he employed in the Spanish service. The protector sent over into Flanders 6000 men, who joined the French army under marshal Turenne. A battle was fought, in which the Spaniards were totally defeated, and Dunkirk, being soon after surrendered, was by agreement delivered to Cromwell.

The protector, however, reaped very little satisfaction from the success of his arms abroad. The situation, in which he stood at home, kept him in perpetual inquietude. Having deceived every party, he had lost the confidence of all. But what gave him most concern was the estrangement of his family. Fleetwood, his son-in-law, was enraged to discover that he entertained views of promoting his own grandeur, more than of encouraging piety and religion, of which he made such fervent professions. Mrs. Fleetwood, his eldest daughter, was so violent a republican, that she could not with patience behold power lodged in a single person, even in her indulgent father. His other daughters were no less prejudiced in favour of the royal cause. Above all, the sickness and death of Mrs. Claypole, his peculiar favourite, who, on her death bed, upbraided her father with all his sanguinary measures, added to his anxiety.

All composure of mind was now for ever fled from the protector. The aspect of strangers was uneasy to him. He never moved a step without guards, and seldom slept above three nights together in the same chamber. Society terrified him, and solitude was not to be born. His health sensibly declined, and he was seized with a slow fever, which terminated in his death, in the 60th year of his

A. D. 1658.

his age, and the 5th of his protectorſhip. As he laſt, when nearly ſpeechleſs, expreſſed a wiſh that his ſon Richard ſhould ſucceed him, the council immediately recogniſed his ſucceſſion. Fleetwood, in whoſe favour, it was ſuppoſed, Cromwell had formerly made a will, renounced all pretenſions to the protectorſhip. Henry, Richard's brother, who governed Ireland with popularity, enſured him the obedience of that kingdom. Monk proclaimed him in Scotland. The army and fleet acknowledged his title. Foreign miniſters paid him the uſual compliments. And Richard, whoſe unambitious character would never have led him to contend for empire, was tempted to accept of ſo rich an inheritance, which ſeemed to be tendered to him by the conſent of all mankind. But as he wanted reſolution, and poſſeſſed none of thoſe arts which were proper to gain an enthuſiaſtic army, he ſoon ſigned his own abdication.

Thus ſuddenly fell the family of the Cromwells. Richard continued to poſſeſs a moderate eſtate, and extended his peaceful and quiet life to an extreme old age. His ſocial virtues, more valuable than the greateſt capacity, met with a recompenſe more precious than noiſy fame.

The reſtoration of monarchy was effected by a general concurrence of the people, who ſeem to have thought that neither peace nor protection were to be obtained, till the ancient conſtitution was eſtabliſhed. General Monk, a man of military abilities, had the ſagacity to obſerve this, and, having rendered himſelf abſolute maſter of the parliament, reſtored Charles II. after an exile of twelve A. D. 1660. years, in France and Holland. Being born on the 29th of May, 1630, Charles was now thirty years of age, poſſeſſed of a good ſhape, a manly figure, and a graceful air. His whole demeanour and behaviour was well qualified to ſupport and increaſe the popularity he had acquired. To a lively wit and quick comprehenſion, he united a juſt underſtanding, and a general obſervation both of men and things. The eaſieſt

manners, the moſt unaffected politeneſs, the moſt engaging gaiety, accompanied his converſation and addreſs. Accuſtomed, during his exile, to live among his courtiers rather like a companion than a monarch, he retained on the throne the ſame open affability. And being totally devoid of reſentment, as well from the natural lenity as careleſſneſs of his temper, he infuſed pardon to the moſt guilty of his enemies.

One of the firſt ſteps of Charles's government was to paſs an act of general indemnity. Thoſe who had an immediate hand in the late king's death, were excepted. Even Cromwell, Ireton, Bradſhaw, and others, now dead, were attainted, and their eſtates forfeited. Vane and Lambert, though none of the regicides, were alſo excepted. Ten only out of four-ſcore were devoted to immediate deſtruction. And theſe were all the ſeverities which followed ſuch furious civil wars and convulſions. Charles knew and cultivated the true intereſts of his kingdom, till he was warped by pleaſure, and ſunk in indolence. He has been ſeverely cenſured for ſelling Dunkirk to the French king for 250,000l. ſterling, to ſupply his neceſſities, after he had ſquandered the immenſe ſums granted him by parliament. Among the evidences of his degeneracy as a king may be mentioned his giving way to the popular clamour againſt the lord chancellor Clarendon, as the chief adviſer of the ſale of Dunkirk. Though his lordſhip was a man of extenſive knowledge and great abilities, and more honeſt in his intentions than moſt of his other miniſters, Charles ſacrificed him to the ſycophants of his pleaſurable hours. The great ſeal being taken from him, he withdrew into France, where he lived in a private manner, and ſurvived his baniſhment ſix years.

The firſt Dutch war, which began in 1665, was carried on with great reſolution and ſpirit under the duke of York; but Charles having miſapplied the public money which had been granted for the proſecution of it, the Dutch, while a treaty of peace was depending, inſulted the royal navy of England. They ſailed

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up the river Medway, as far as Chatham, made themselves masters of Sheerness, and burnt several men of war, together with a magazine full of stores. Notwithstanding this treacherous affront, Charles concluded a treaty at Breda, by which the colony of New York, in North America, was ceded by the Dutch to the English.

In 1678, the famous Titus Oates, and some others, opened a plot, charging the papists with a design to murder the king, and to introduce popery. Though nothing could be more ridiculous, than some parts of their narrative, yet it was supported with the utmost zeal on the part of the parliament, when the aged lord Stafford, Coleman, secretary to the duke of York, and other papists, were executed. The duke himself was obliged to leave the country.

The earl of Shaftesbury, who was at the head of the opposition, pushed on the total exclusion of the duke of York from the throne. He was seconded by the ill-advised duke of Monmouth, and the bill, after passing the commons, miscarried in the house of peers. All England was again in a flame. Lord Russel, who had been remarkable in his opposition to the popish succession, Algernon Sidney, and several other distinguished protestants were tried, condemned, and suffered death. Even the city of London was intimidated into the measures of the court, and the duke of York returned in triumph to Whitehall. It was thought, however, that Charles repented of some of his arbitrary steps, and intended to have recalled the duke of Monmouth, as well as to have taken some measures for the future quiet of his reign, when he was seized with a sudden fit of illness, and after languishing a few days, expired in the 55th year of his age, and the 25th of his reign. He had married A. D. 1685. Catharine, infanta of Portugal, by whom he had received a large fortune in ready money, besides the town and fortress of Tangier, in Africa; but he left behind him no lawful issue. The descendants of his

natural sons and daughters are now amongst the most distinguished of the British nobility.

On the death of Charles, his brother the duke of York was immediately proclaimed king, under the title of James II. The popular affection towards him was increased by the early declaration he made in favour of the church of England, which, during the late reign, had formally pronounced all resistance to the reigning king to be unlawful. Soon after his accession, however, the duke of Monmouth, natural son of the late king, landed at Lyme, in Dorsetshire, with only eighty-three followers, and published a declaration, that his sole motive for taking arms, was, to preserve the protestant religion, and to deliver the nation from the usurpation of James. He affirmed likewise that his mother was actually married to Charles II. Having thus raised an army in the west of England, he attacked the king's forces at Sedgemoor, near Bridgewater; and had it not been for his own misconduct, and the cowardice of lord Gray, he might have gained a decisive victory. Though Gray and the cavalry fled in the beginning of the action, the undisciplined infantry gallantly maintained the combat for three hours, when 1400 of them were killed in the battle and pursuit, and nearly an equal number made prisoners.

A. D. 1685,

Monmouth fled from the field till his horse sunk under him, and was at last found lying in a ditch, covered with fern. When seized by his enemies, he burst into tears. He wrote the most submissive letters to the king, and conjured him to spare the issue of a brother, who had ever been attached to his interest. But James was inexorable. This favourite of the people was attended to the scaffold with a plentiful effusion of tears. He warned the executioner not to fall into the error, which he had committed in beheading lord Russel. The precaution served only to dismay the executioner, who struck a feeble blow. The duke raised his head from the block, and looked in his face, as if to reproach him. He then gently laid down his head a second time, when the executioner struck

him

him again and again to no purpose. The man now threw aside the axe, and cried out, that he was incapable of finishing the bloody office. The sheriff obliged him to renew the attempt; and with two blows more the head was severed from the body. Thus perished, in the 36th year of his age, a nobleman, who, in less turbulent times, was well qualified to be an ornament to the court, and serviceable to his country.

Had this victory been managed with prudence by James, it would have tended much to increase his authority. But by reason of the cruelty with which it was prosecuted, and of the temerity with which it afterwards inspired him, it was the principal cause of his downfal. The savage colonel Kirk, on his first entry into Bridgewater, without the least enquiry into the nature of their guilt, ordered a great number of the prisoners to be executed, while he and his company should drink the king's health; and observing their feet to quiver in the agonies of death, he commanded the drums to beat, and the trumpets to sound, saying he would give them music to their dancing. About 250 of these unfortunate people afterwards fell a prey to the no less savage disposition of the cruel judge Jefferies, who was appointed to try them. James employed the most offensive measures for rendering popery the established religion of his dominions. He pretended to a power of dispensing with the known laws. He instituted an illegal ecclesiastical court, openly received and admitted into his privy-council the pope's emissaries, and treated them with uncommon respect. The imprisonment of seven bishops, who presented a petition against reading his declaration for liberty of conscience, greatly alarmed his protestant friends; and his encroachments upon the civil and religious rights of his subjects were disapproved by the pope himself.

In this extremity, many great men in England and Scotland, applied for relief to William, prince of Orange, a man of great abilities, and the inveterate

enemy of Lewis XIV. who then threatened Europe with chains. Accordingly the prince, who was the nephew and ſon-in-law of James, embarked with a fleet of 500 ſail for England, avowing it to be his deſign to reſtore the church and ſtate to their due rights. Upon his arrival, he was joined not only by the Whigs, but by many whom James had conſidered as his beſt friends. Even his daughter, the princeſs Anne, and her huſband, George prince of Denmark left him, and joined the prince of Orange.

Alarmed by ſo many proofs of a general diſaffection, and not daring to repoſe truſt in any one, the king embraced the reſolution of eſcaping into France. He ſent off before-hand the queen and the infant prince, under the conduct of the count Lauzun, an old favourite of the French monarch. He himſelf, ſoon after, diſappeared in the night time, attended only by ſir Edward Hales, and made the beſt of his way to a ſhip, which waited for him near the mouth of the Thames. But being ſeized by the populace at Feverſham, he returned to Rocheſter, and from thence to London, where he was received with great acclamations. Urged, however, by his fears, he withdrew again to Rocheſter, from whence he privately retired to the ſea coaſt, and embarking on board a frigate which waited for him, arrived ſafely at Ambleteuſe, in Picardy. He then haſtened to St. Germains, where he was received by Lewis, with the higheſt generoſity, ſympathy, and regard.

Thus the courage and abilities of the prince of Orange, ſeconded by ſurpriſing good fortune, effected the deliverance of this iſland, and dethroned a great prince, ſupported by a formidable fleet, and a numerous army. The ſucceſſion of the crown ſtill remained to be ſettled. Some adviſed the prince to claim it by right of conqueſt. A regent, with kingly power, was propoſed by others. But after being agitated with great zeal and ability, by the oppoſite parties, in the houſe of peers, the queſtion was carried for a king, by two voices only. The convention, therefore, paſſed a bill,

a bill, by which the crown was ſettled on the prince and princeſs of Orange, while the ſole adminiſtration remained in the prince. To this ſettlement was annexed a declaration of rights, in which all the diſputed points between the king and people, were finally determined. The powers of the royal prerogative were more narrowly circumſcribed, and more exactly defined, than in any former period of the Engliſh government.

CHAP. II.

ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY. A. D. 1603—1688.

THE pacific reign of James I. was a ſeries of theological conteſts, in which he ſhewed himſelf more the theologian than the prince. The religious diſputes between the church and the puritans induced him to call a conference at Hampton court, on pretence of finding expedients which might reconcile both parties. It was the character of James's councils, through his whole reign, that they were more wiſe and equitable in their end, than prudent and political in the means. Though juſtly ſenſible, that no part of civil adminiſtration required greater care or a nicer judgment than the conduct of religious parties, he had not perceived, that in the ſame proportion as this practical knowledge of theology is requiſite, the ſpeculative refinements in it are mean and even dangerous in a monarch. By entering zealouſly into frivolous diſputes, James gave them an air of importance and dignity, which they could not otherwiſe have acquired; and being himſelf enliſted in the quarrel, he could no longer have recourſe to contempt and ridicule, the only proper method of appeaſing it. The puritans had not yet ſeparated themſelves from the church, nor openly renounced epiſcopacy. Though the ſpirit of the parties was conſiderably different, the principal ſubjects of diſpute were concerning the croſs in baptiſm, the ring in marriage, the uſe of the ſurplice, and the

bowing at the name of Jesus. These were the mighty questions which were solemnly agitated, before the king and his ministers in the conference at Hampton-court, between some bishops and dignified clergymen on the one hand, and some leaders of the puritanical party on the other. The puritans complained of a partial and unfair management of the dispute. The king, it must be confessed, from the beginning of the conference shewed the strongest propensity to the established church, and frequently inculcated a maxim, which, though it has some foundation, is to be received with great limitations: *No Bishop, No King.* The bishops, in their turn, were very liberal of their praises towards the royal disputant; and the archbishop of Canterbury said, that *undoubtedly his majesty spake by the special assistance of God's spirit.*

In 1617, James attempted to establish episcopacy in Scotland, but the zeal of the people baffled his design. He must first have procured an acknowledgment of his own authority in all spiritual causes; and nothing could be more contrary to the practice as well as principles of the presbyterian clergy. The ecclesiastical courts possessed the power of pronouncing excommunication. That sentence, besides the spiritual consequences supposed to follow from it, was attended with immediate effects of the most important nature. The person excommunicated was shunned by every one as profane and impious. His whole estate, during his life time, and all his moveables, for ever, were forfeited to the crown. The king, therefore, could only extort a vote from the general assembly of the kirk, for receiving certain ceremonies upon which his heart was more particularly set; namely, kneeling at the sacrament, the private administration of it to sick persons, the confirmation of children, and the observance of christmas and other festivals. This constrained consent of the presbyterian clergy was belied by the inward sentiments of all ranks of people: even the few, over whom religious prejudices have less influence, thought

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national honour ſacrificed by a ſervile imitation of the modes of worſhip practiſed in England.

In the reign of Charles I. when the commons of England proceeded to carry their ſcrutiny into his management of religion, his indignation was rouſed, and he diſſolved the parliament. The commons, on this occaſion, behaved with great boldneſs. As ſoon as they had the firſt intimation of the king's deſign from the ſpeaker, who immediately left the chair, they puſhed him back into it; and two members held him there, until a ſhort remonſtrance was framed, and paſſed by acclamation rather than by vote. In that remonſtrance, all who ſhould ſeek to introduce popery or Arminianiſm, were declared enemies to the commonwealth.

The difference between the Arminian doctrines, and thoſe of the eſtabliſhed church, related chiefly to the tenets of predeſtination and abſolute decrees, which had been every where embraced by the firſt reformers, and were ſtill maintained in all their rigour by the Puritans. The Arminians, by aſſerting the freedom of the human will, and diffuſing other rational opinions, had rendered themſelves obnoxious to theſe violent enthuſiaſts. Some of that ſect had obtained the higheſt preferments in the church. Laud, Montague, and other biſhops, the chief ſupporters of epiſcopal government, were all ſuppoſed to be tainted with Arminianiſm. The ſame men and their diſciples, in return for the favour ſhewn them by the court, were the ſtrenuous preachers of paſſive obedience, and an unconditional ſubmiſſion to princes.

Charles, whoſe religion had a ſtrong tincture of ſuperſtition in it, required a rigid conformity to the ancient ceremonies, to which he was prompted by Laud, biſhop of London, whom he raiſed to the ſee of Canterbury, and inveſted with uncontrouled authority over the conſciences of the people. The religion, which the archbiſhop wanted to eſtabliſh, differed very little from that of the church of Rome. The Puritans therefore regarded him as the forerunner of antichriſt.

Nor were the Puritans ſingular in this opinion. A court lady, daughter of the earl of Devonſhire, having turned catholic, was aſked by Laud, her reaſon for changing her religion: "It is chiefly," anſwered ſhe, "becauſe I hate to travel in a croud." The meaning of theſe words being demanded, ſhe replied, "I perceive your grace and many others are making haſte to Rome; and therefore, in order to prevent my being joſtled, I have gone before you." In a word, Laud's chief objection to popery ſeems to have been the ſupremacy of the holy ſee, to which he did not chuſe to ſubject his metropolitan power. His ambition and bigotry, however, at laſt brought him to the block.

When Cromwell aſſumed the reins of government, he granted an unbounded liberty of conſcience, to all but catholics and epiſcopalians. He was moſt favourable to the independents. He paid alſo conſiderable attention to the millenarians or *fifth monarchy men*, who had great intereſt in the army, and whoſe narrow underſtanding and enthuſiaſtic temper afforded full ſcope for the exerciſe of his pious deceptions. Theſe men, while they anxiouſly expected the *ſecond coming* of Chriſt, believed that the ſaints, among whom they conſidered themſelves to ſtand in the firſt claſs, were only entitled to govern in the mean time. Cromwell, in conformity with this way of thinking, told them he had only ſtept in between the *living* and the *dead*, to keep the nation, during that interval, from becoming a prey to the *common enemy*.

Cromwell, in great meaſure conciliated the affection of the preſbyterians, by joining them in a commiſſion with ſome independents, to be triers of thoſe that were to be admitted to benefices, and alſo to diſpoſe of all the churches that were in the gift of the crown, of the biſhops, and of the cathedral churches.

The candidates for holy orders were no more perplexed with queſtions concerning their progreſs in Greek and Roman erudition, or concerning their talent for profane arts and ſciences. The chief object

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of ſcrutiny regarded their advances in grace, and fixing the critical moment of their converſion.

With the pretended ſaints of all denominations, Cromwell was familiar and eaſy. Laying aſide the ſtate of protector, which, on other occaſions, he well knew how to maintain, he inſinuated to them, that nothing but neceſſity could ever oblige him to inveſt himſelf with it. He talked ſpiritually to them. He ſighed, he wept, he canted, he prayed.

In the reign of Charles II. great rigour and ſeverity were exerciſed againſt the preſbyterians, and all other nonconformiſts to epiſcopacy, which was again eſtabliſhed with a high hand, both in England and Scotland.

James II. more imprudent and more arbitrary than his predeceſſor, ſent an ambaſſador extraordinary to Rome, in order to expreſs his obeiſance to the pope, and to reconcile his kingdoms to the catholic communion. The pontiff, inſtead of being pleaſed with this forward ſtep, concluded that a ſcheme, conducted with ſo much indiſcretion, could not be ſucceſsful, and treated the embaſſy with neglect. The only proof of complaiſance which James received from the pope, was his ſending a nuncio to England. Four catholic biſhops were publicly conſecrated in the king's chapel, and ſent out under the title of vicars apoſtolical, to exercise the epiſcopal function in their reſpective dioceſes. Their paſtoral letters, directed to the lay catholics of England, were printed and diſperſed by the expreſs permiſſion of the king. The regular clergy of that communion appeared at court in the habits of their order; and ſome of them were ſo indiſcreet as to boaſt, that, in a little time, they hoped to walk in proceſſion through the capital. This encouragement of popery ſoon deprived James of the crown, and made a witty courtier of Lewis XIV. ſay, "*There goes a ſimpleton, who loſt three kingdoms for a maſs.*"

CHAP. III.

GOVERNMENT. A. D. 1603—1688.

UNDER the reign of the Stuarts, the nation began to recover from its long lethargy. James I. a prince rather imprudent than tyrannical, drew back the veil which had hitherto diſguiſed ſo many uſurpations, and made an oſtentatious diſplay of what his predeceſſors had been contented to enjoy. He aſſerted that the authority of *kings was not to be controuled*, any more than that of God himſelf. Like him, they were omnipotent; and thoſe privileges, to which the people ſo clamorouſly laid claim as their inheritance and birthright, were no more than an effect of the grace and toleration of his royal anceſtors. Theſe principles, announced from the throne, and reſounded from the pulpit, ſpread an univerſal alarm. A new light had begun to riſe upon the nation, through the extenſion of commerce and the art of printing, and a ſpirit of oppoſition frequently diſplayed itſelf in this reign, to which the Britiſh monarchs had not, for a long time, been accuſtomed. But the ſtorm, which was only gathering in the clouds during the reign of James, began to vent itſelf under his ſucceſſor, Charles I. The general notions of religion, by a ſingular concurrence, uniting with the love of liberty, the ſame ſpirit, which had made an attack on the eſtabliſhed faith, now directed itſelf to politics; and Charles had to cope with a whole nation put in motion, and directed by an aſſembly of ſtateſmen. The compulſory loans and taxes, diſguiſed under the name of *benevolences*, were declared to be contrary to law; arbitrary impriſonments, and the exerciſe of the martial law, were aboliſhed; the court of high commiſſion, and the ſtar-chamber, were ſuppreſſed; and the conſtitution, freed from the apparatus of deſpotic powers, with which the Tudors had obſcured it, was reſtored to its ancient

luſtre. Charles could not reconcile himſelf to limitations and reſtraints ſo injurious, as he thought, to ſovereign authority. His diſcourſe and conduct betrayed his ſecret deſign. Diſtruſt took poſſeſſion of the nation. The ſtorm burſt forth. The tempeſt blew from every point of the compaſs. The conſtitution was rent aſunder, and Charles exhibited in his fall an awful example to the univerſe.

The royal authority being thus annihilated, the Engliſh made fruitleſs attempts to ſubſtitute a republican government in its ſtead. Subjected, at firſt, to the power of the principal leaders in the long parliament, they ſaw that power expire, only to paſs, without bounds, into the hands of a protector. Charles II. was therefore called over. But this monarch appearing to be bent upon the recovery of the ancient powers of the crown, the nation ſoon ſaw into his deſigns, and reſolved to take away thoſe remnants of deſpotiſm, which ſtill made a part of regal prerogative. The laws againſt heretics were repealed; the ſtatute for holding *triennial parliaments* was enacted; and the *habeas corpus* act, that barrier of perſonal ſafety, was eſtabliſhed.

On the death of Charles, began a reign which affords a moſt exemplary leſſon both to kings and people. James II. hurried away by a ſpirit of deſpotiſm and monkiſh zeal, not only extorted from his ſubjects unlimited obedience, but ſought to eſtabliſh on the ruins of a religion, held moſt dear by the nation, a mode of faith which repeated acts of the legiſlature had proſcribed. The people, ſeeing their liberty thus attacked, even in its firſt principles, had recourſe to that remedy which reaſon and nature pointed out. They withdrew the allegiance, which they had ſworn to James, and thought themſelves abſolved from their oath to a king, who himſelf diſregarded the oath he had made to his ſubjects. The throne was now declared vacant, and a new line of ſucceſſion eſtabliſhed, when an advantage was taken of the rare opportunity of entering into a *compact* between king and people. The revolution of 1688, therefore, is the third grand æra

in

in the history of the English constitution. The great charter had marked out the limits within which the royal authority ought to be confined; some outworks were raised in the reign of Edward I. but the circumvallation was not completed till the revolution.

CHAP. IV.

LEARNING. A. D. 1603—1688.

THE reign of James I. was distinguished by the labours of many eminent authors, both in prose and verse, but mostly in a bad taste. The pun was common in the pulpit, and the quibble was propagated from the throne. His *Basilicon Doron*, however, and all his speeches to parliament evince, that James possessed no mean genius. If he wrote concerning witches and apparitions, who in that age did not admit the reality of these fictitious beings? The great glory of literature, during this reign, was lord Bacon. If we consider the variety of talents displayed by this man, as a public speaker, a man of business, a wit, a courtier, a companion, an author, and a philosopher, he is justly the object of our admiration.

Charles I. was a good judge of writing, and was thought by some more anxious about purity of style, than became a monarch. In his turbulent reign, men of vast abilities made their appearance. Then the force and compass of our language were first fully tried in the public papers of the king and parliament, and in the bold eloquence of the speeches of the two parties. Then was roused, in political and theological controversy, the vigorous genius of John Milton, which afterward broke forth with so much lustre in the poem of Paradise Lost, unquestionably the greatest effort of human imagination. No poet, ancient or modern, is so sublime in his conceptions as Milton; and few have ever equalled him in boldness of description, or strength of expression.

Crom-

Cromwell, though himself a barbarian, was not insensible to literary merit. Usher, though a bishop, received a pension from him. Marvel and Milton were in his service. Waller, his relation, was caressed by him, and always said, that the Protector was not so illiterate, as people commonly imagined. He intended to have erected a college at Durham for the benefit of the northern counties. It must however, be confessed, that the wretched fanaticism, which so much infected the parliamentary party, was no less destructive of taste and science, than of all law and order. Gaiety and wit were proscribed. Human learning was generally despised. Freedom of enquiry was detested. Cant and hypocrisy alone were encouraged.

Amidst the thick cloud of enthusiasm, which overspread the nation, during the commonwealth and protectorship, there were a few sedate philosophers, who in the retirement of Oxford, cultivated their reason, and established conferences for the mutual communication of their discoveries in physic and geometry. The celebrated Boyle, and Wilkins, a clergyman, who had married Cromwell's sister, and was afterwards bishop of Chester, promoted these philosophical conversations. Immediately after the restoration, these men procured a patent, and, having enlarged their number, were denominated the *Royal Society*. But this patent was all they obtained from the king. Though Charles was a great lover of the sciences, particularly chemistry and mechanics, he animated them by his example alone, not by his bounty. His craving courtiers and mistresses, by whom he was perpetually surrounded, engrossed all his expence, and left him neither money nor attention for literary merit. His contemporary, Lewis XIV. far exceeded him in liberality. Besides pensions conferred on learned men throughout all Europe, his academies were directed by rules, and supported by salaries.

CHAP.

CHAP. V.

THE ARTS. A. D. 1603—1688.

AGRICULTURE, for many centuries, was very imperfect in Britain. The ſudden tranſitions ſo often mentioned by hiſtorians, from the loweſt to the higheſt price of grain, and the prodigious inequality of its value, in different years, are ſufficient proofs, that the produce depended on the ſeaſons, and that art contributed very little to guard againſt the injuries of the heavens. Conſiderable improvements were now made in this beneficial art. A numerous catalogue might be formed of books and pamphlets, treating of huſbandry, written about this time. The nation, however, was ſtill dependant on foreigners for daily bread. Though the exportation of grain afterwards formed a conſiderable branch of its commerce, there was in this period a regular importation from the Baltic, as well as from France; and if it ever ſtopped, the bad conſequences were ſenſibly felt by the nation. Two millions ſterling went out at one time for corn. It was not till the fifth of Elizabeth, that the exportation of corn had been allowed in England; and Camden obſerves, that agriculture, from that moment, received new life and vigour.

Before the civil wars, agriculture and the fine arts were favoured at court, and a good taſte began to prevail in the nation, under the auſpices of Charles I. Inigo Jones was maſter of the king's buildings. He was afterwards perſecuted by parliament, on account of the part which he had in rebuilding St. Paul's, and for obeying ſome orders of council, by which he was directed to pull down houſes, in order to make room for that edifice. Charles, notwithſtanding his narrow revenue, and his freedom from all vanity, lived in ſuch magnificence, that he poſſeſſed twenty-four elegantly furniſhed palaces, ſo that when he removed from one to another,

another, he had no occaſion to take any thing with him. The king loved pictures, ſometimes handled the pencil himſelf, and was a connoiſſeur in the art. The pieces of foreign maſters were bought up at a vaſt price. The value of pictures was doubled in Europe, by the emulation between Charles and Philip IV. of Spain, who were touched by the ſame elegant paſſion. Vandyke was careſſed and enriched at court. Laws, who had not been ſurpaſſed by any muſician before him, was much beloved by the king, who called him the father of muſic.

In poetry, Waller, whoſe taſte was formed under the firſt Charles, and who wrote during the brighteſt days of the ſecond, is one of the chief refiners of our verſification, as well as language. Lee, whoſe dramatic talent was great, introduced into blank verſe that ſolemn pomp of ſound, which was long much affected by our modern tragic poets. The pathetic Otway brought tragedy down to the level of domeſtic life, and exemplified that ſimplicity of expreſſion, ſo well ſuited to the language of the tender paſſions. But Otway, in other reſpects, is by no means ſo chaſte a writer; nor was the reign of Charles II. though crowded with men of genius, the æra either of good taſte or of delicate ſentiments.

The painters were not more chaſte than the poets. Nymphs bathing, or voluptuouſly repoſing on the verdant ſod, were the common objects of the pencil. Even the female portraits of ſir Peter Lely, who was patroniſed by the king on his reſtoration, are more calculated to provoke looſe deſire, than to impreſs the mind with any idea of the reputable qualities of the ladies they were intended to repreſent.

CHAP.

CHAP. VI.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES. A. D. 1603—1688.

SIR Walter Raleigh, an illuſtrious navigator and hiſtorian, born in 1552, did eminent ſervices to queen Elizabeth, particularly in the diſcovery of Virginia, and in the defeat of the Spaniſh Armada. He lived in full happineſs and honour during her reign; but on the acceſſion of king James, he loſt his intereſt at court, and being unaccountably accuſed of high treaſon, was condemned to die. By the intereſt of his friends, however, he was reprieved, and committed priſoner to the tower of London, where he wrote his "*Hiſtory of the World*," a work of ſuch uncommon merit, that it procured his releaſement. He then received a commiſſion from the king, to go and explore the golden mines at Guiana, where his eldeſt ſon Walter was killed by the Spaniards, and the Town of St. Thomas burnt by captain Keymis. Upon this, count Gondamar, the Spaniſh ambaſſador, making heavy complaints to the king, in order to appeaſe him, ſir Walter was apprehended in Devonſhire, his native county, and condemned on his former attainder, an inſtance of injuſtice and cruelty unparalleled in our annals. It gave the higheſt offence then, and has ever ſince been mentioned with general indignation. He ſuffered decapitation with great fortitude, in Old Palace yard, Weſtminſter. A. D. 1618.

About the ſame time died *lord Napier, a Scottiſh nobleman*, who diſtinguiſhed himſelf by the invention of logarithms. He alſo diſcovered the arithmetical rods which go by his name. His lordſhip was not only an able mathematician, but a learned theologian, and wrote a curious book on the Revelations.

William Camden, who died in 1623, has rendered his name immortal by a work, entitled *Britannia*, being a hiſtory of the ancient inhabitants of Britain, their original,

original, manners, and laws. In 1593, he was appointed head master of Westminster school, while he enjoyed a prebend in Salisbury cathedral, without being in orders. Mr. Hume says, that his *Life of Queen Elizabeth*, "is the best historical production of any Englishman."

Lord chancellor Bacon, viscount of St. Alban's, *the father of experimental philosophy*, was one of the greatest and most universal geniuses that any age or country ever produced. He was noticed when a child by queen Elizabeth, and gave such early indications of his future eminence, that she used to call him her "young lord-keeper." Being accused of bribery and corruption in his high office, in the reign of James I. he was fined 40,000l. and sentenced to be confined in the Tower during the king's pleasure. He was soon restored to liberty, had his fine remitted, and was summoned to the first parliament of Charles I. It must not be omitted that the greatest part of the blame attaches to his servants. Of this he was so sensible, that during his trial, as he passed through the room where his domestics were sitting, when they all rose up on his entrance, he said, "Sit down, my masters, your rise hath been my fall." After his disgrace he went into retirement, where he devoted himself to his beloved studies. He died in 1626. His writings, which are an inestimable treasure of sound wisdom, were published in an elegant form, in 1778.

Sir Edward Coke, lord chief justice of England, who died in 1684, was a very eminent lawyer. His *Institutes*, in four parts, are invaluable. The first part is a comment on sir Thomas Littleton's Tenures. He met with many changes of fortune; was sometimes in power, and sometimes in disgrace. He was, however, so excellent at making the best of a disgrace, that king James used to compare him to a cat, who always fell upon her legs.

Benjamin Jonson, after being a bricklayer, and a soldier, acquired great celebrity as a dramatic writer, with the assistance of his friend Shakespeare. At the accession

acceſſion of James I. he had the honour of preparing the device for the entertainment of the king, in his paſſage from the Tower to Weſtminſter abbey. In 1621 he was appointed poet-laureat, when the annual ſalary of 100 marks was raiſed to 100l. He died in 1637, and on his grave ſtone, in Weſtminſter abbey, is the following inſcription:

"*O! Rare Ben Jonſon!*"

John Hampden, a celebrated patriot, in the reign of Charles I. diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his oppoſition to the payment of ſhip money, by which he acquired great popularity. Having obtained a ſeat in the houſe of commons, he ſoon became a leading man, and at the commencement of the civil war, took up arms againſt the royaliſts, but was cut off early by a mortal wound, which he received by a piſtol burſting in his hand, in a ſkirmiſh with prince Rupert. When paſſive obedience and non-reſiſtance were diſgraced by law, he was eſteemed by both parties as a great and a good man. Mr. Gray, in his incomparable elegy, has painted him in the glorious colours of a warm and active patriot,

A. D. 1643.

"——————" who with dauntleſs breaſt,
"The little tyrant of his fields withſtood."

Inigo Jones, a famous architect, who died in 1651, was ſurveyor general of the royal works, and had the management of the maſques and interludes for the entertainment of the court. This brought him into a ſquabble with Ben Jonſon, his coadjutor, who ridiculed him in his comedy of Bartholomew-fair, under the name of *Lanthern Leatherhead*. He deſigned the palace of Whitehall, the Banqueting-houſe, and ſeveral other buildings.

William Harvey, phyſician to Charles I. diſcovered the circulation of the blood, and the motion of the heart in animals. This diſcovery made a great revolution in the ſcience of phyſic, and many foreign practitioners endeavoured to rob the author of his due honour, by aſcribing it to other perſons, and among the reſt to father Paul of Venice. But the right of our learned

learned countryman has long ſince been fully eſtabliſhed. He died in 1657.

Abraham Cowley, who died in 1667, was a poet of great ingenuity and vigour of thought. "Of all authors," ſays Mr. Addiſon, "none ever abounded ſo much in wit, according to Locke's true definition of it, as Cowley." His proſe writings pleaſe, by the honeſty and goodneſs which they expreſs, and even by their ſpleen and melancholy.

Sir *John Denham*, whoſe *Cooper's Hill* has been commended by all men of taſte, died in 1668. With reference to this poem, Dr. Johnſon ſays, that "he ſeems to have been the author of a ſpecies of compoſition that may be denominated local poetry, of which the fundamental ſubject is ſome particular landſcape, to be poetically deſcribed, with the addition of ſuch embelliſhments as may be ſupplied by hiſtorical retroſpect, or incidental meditation."

John Milton, who died in 1674, during a ſtate of poverty, blindneſs, diſgrace, danger, and old age, compoſed that wonderful poem, *Paradiſe Loſt*, which not only ſurpaſſed all the performances of his contemporaries, but all the compoſitions, which had flowed from his pen, during the vigour of his age, and the height of his proſperity. This circumſtance is not the leaſt remarkable of all thoſe which attend that great genius. It is well known, that this great man never enjoyed in his life-time the reputation which he deſerved. Whitlocke talks of one Milton, as he calls him, a blind man, who was employed in tranſlating a treaty with Sweden into Latin. Theſe forms of expreſſion are amuſing to poſterity, who conſider how obſcure Whitlocke himſelf, though lord-keeper, and an ambaſſador, has become in compariſon of Milton. He had three daughters, two of whom uſed to read to him in eight languages, though they underſtood none but their mother tongue. Milton was ſo handſome, that at Cambridge he was called, "*The Lady of Chriſt College.*"

Edward

Edward Hyde, earl of Clarendon, and lord chancellor of England, has immortalized his name by a history of the rebellion in the time of Charles I. An air of probity and goodneſs runs through this work; as theſe qualities did in reality embelliſh the life of the author. He was afterwards, however, impeached of high treaſon, and fled to France, where he died in 1674.

James Gregory, an eminent Scottiſh mathematician, who invented the reflecting teleſcope, the burning concave mirror, and the quadrature of the circle by an infinite converging ſeries, died in 1675. He was educated at the univerſity of Aberdeen.

The *Rev. Dr. Iſaac Barrow*, who died in 1677, was an excellent divine, and mathematician. When the king advanced him to the dignity of maſter of Trinity college, Cambridge, his majeſty was pleaſed to ſay, "he had given it to the beſt ſcholar in England." He was ſucceeded in the mathematical chair, which he reſigned upon this appointment, by his illuſtrious pupil ſir Iſaac Newton. As a proof of his wit, we are told the following ſtory. Meeting lord Rocheſter one day at court, his lordſhip, by way of banter, thus accoſted him: "Doctor, I am your's to my ſhoe-tie." Barrow, ſeeing his aim, returned his ſalute as obſequiouſly, with "My lord, I am your's to the ground." Rocheſter, improving his blow, quickly returned it, with "Doctor, I am your's to the centre;" which was as ſmartly followed by Barrow, with "My lord, I am your's to the antipodes." Upon which, Rocheſter, ſcorning to be foiled, exclaimed, "Doctor, I am your's to the infernal regions!" On which Barrow turning on his heel, anſwered, "There my lord, I leave you."

The inimitable *Samuel Butler* lived for ſome time, in the capacity of ſteward, with ſir Samuel Luke, a famous commander under Oliver Cromwell. It is thought that he intended to ridicule this knight under the character of *Hudibras*. It is ſurpriſing how much erudition Butler has introduced, with ſo good a grace, into a work of pleaſantry and humour. Hudibras is

one of the moſt learned compoſitions in any language. No performance whatever abounds ſo much in ſtrokes of true wit and ſatire. The advantage, which the royal cauſe received from this poem, in expoſing the fanaticiſm and falſe pretences of the former parliamentary party, was prodigious. The king himſelf had ſo good a taſte as to be highly pleaſed with the merit of the work, and had even got a great part of it by heart. Yet was he either ſo careleſs in his temper, or ſo little endowed with gratitude, that he allowed the author, who was a man of virtue and probity, to live in obſcurity, and die in want. Butler died in 1680.

Algernon Sidney, a celebrated patriot, and political writer, was a violent oppoſer of Cromwell after he became protector. He ſet up Marcus Brutus for his pattern, and died like him in the cauſe of liberty. A falſe accuſation being brought againſt him for being concerned in the rye-houſe plot, he was tried by judge Jefferies and a packed jury, when he was found guilty, and executed on Tower-hill, in 1683.

Edmund Waller, the parent of Engliſh verſe, and the firſt who ſhewed us that our language had beauty and numbers in it, died in 1687. He was very intimate with Cromwell, upon whom he wrote a panegyric. He was, however, treated with great reſpect by Charles II. at the reſtoration, and afterwards ſat in ſeveral parliaments.

The Hon. *Robert Boyle*, a moſt diſtinguiſhed philoſopher, and exemplary man, died in 1691. He was one of the firſt of thoſe illuſtrious men, who formed the royal ſociety, for the purpoſe of improving experimental knowledge upon the plan, laid down by the great Bacon. He improved the air pump, and diſcovered ſeveral qualities of the air. His philoſophical writings, and his curious experiments in chemiſtry, have ſecured him immortal fame.

CHAP. VII.

COMMERCE. A. D. 1603—1688.

THE reign of James I. is memorable by the commencement of the American colonies, eſtabliſhed on the nobleſt footing that has been known in any age, or nation. Peopled gradually from England by the neceſſitous and indigent, who at home increaſed neither wealth nor population, the colonies which were planted along that tract, have promoted the navigation, encouraged the induſtry, and even, perhaps, multiplied the inhabitants of their mother country. The ſpirit of independency, which was revived in England, here ſhone forth in its full luſtre, and received new acceſſion from the aſpiring character of thoſe who, being diſcontented with the eſtabliſhed church and monarchy, had fought for freedom amidſt thoſe ſavage deſerts.

The Eaſt-India company, having received a new patent from James, enlarged their ſtock to 1,500,000 pounds, and fitted out ſeveral ſhips on theſe advantages. In 1609, they built a veſſel of 1200 ton, the largeſt merchant-ſhip that England had ever known. She was unfortunate, and periſhed by ſhipwreck.

England acquired much more reſpect from foreign powers, between the death of Charles I. and that of Cromwell, than ſhe had been treated with ſince the days of Elizabeth. This was owing to the great men who formed the republic, which Cromwell aboliſhed, and who, as it were, inſtantaneouſly called forth the naval ſtrength of the kingdom. Monopolies of all kinds were aboliſhed, and liberty of conſcience to all ſects was granted, to the vaſt advantage of population and manufactures, which had ſuffered greatly during the civil wars.

From the reſtoration to the revolution, commerce and riches had a rapid increaſe. The two dutch wars, by diſturbing the trade of that republic, promoted the navigation

navigation of this iſland; and after Charles had made a ſeparate peace with the ſtates, his ſubjects enjoyed unmoleſted the trade of Europe. The only diſturbance, which they met with, was from a few French privateers, who infeſted the channel, becauſe Charles did not interpoſe in behalf of his people with ſufficient ſpirit and vigour.

Copper halfpence and farthings began to be coined in the reign of James I. Moſt of the ſilver pennies having diſappeared, tradeſmen were obliged to carry on their retail buſineſs chiefly by means of leaden tokens. The coins of Cromwell exceed in beauty and workmanſhip, any of that age. James II. coined gold pieces of the value of five pounds.

CHAP. VIII.

MANNERS. A. D. 1603—1688.

IN the reign of James I. family pride very much prevailed. The gentry and nobility diſtinguiſhed themſelves from the common people, by a dignity and ſtatelineſs of behaviour. Great riches, acquired by commerce, were more rare, and had not as yet been able to confound all ranks of men, and render money the chief foundation of diſtinction. The expences of the higher ranks conſiſted in pomp and ſhow, and a numerous retinue, rather than in convenience and true pleaſure. The earl of Nottingham, in his embaſſy to Spain, was attended by 500 perſons. Civil honours, which now hold the firſt place, were at that time ſubordinate to the military. The young gentry and nobility were fond of diſtinguiſhing themſelves by arms. The fury of duels too prevailed more than at any time before or ſince. This was the turn that the romantic chivalry, for which the nation was formerly ſo renowned, had lately taken.

The firſt ſedan chair ſeen in England was in this reign, and was uſed by the duke of Buckingham, to

the great indignation of the people, who exclaimed that he was employing his fellow-creatures to do the ſervice of beaſts.

Though the country life was then much more generally embraced by all the gentry than at preſent, the increaſe of arts, pleaſures, and ſocial commerce, was juſt beginning to produce an inclination for the ſofter and the more civilized life of the city. James diſcouraged, as much as poſſible, this alteration of manners. He would often ſay to them, "Gentlemen, at London, you are like ſhips in a ſea, which ſhow like nothing; but in your country villages you are like ſhips in a river, which look like great things." James thought that, by their living together, they became more ſenſible of their own ſtrength, and were apt to indulge too curious reſearches into matters of government. To remedy this evil, he wiſhed to diſperſe them into their country ſeats; where, he hoped they would bear a more ſubmiſſive reverence to his authority, and receive leſs ſupport from each other. But the contrary effect ſoon followed. The riches, amaſſed during their reſidence at home, rendered them independent. The influence acquired by hoſpitality made them formidable. They would not be led by the court. They could not be driven. And thus the ſyſtem of the Engliſh government ſoon after underwent a total change.

Could human nature ever reach happineſs, the condition of the Engliſh gentry, under ſo mild and benign a prince, might merit that appellation. They were engaged in no expence, except that of country hoſpitality. No taxes were levied, no wars waged, no attendance at court expected, no bribery or profuſion required at elections. They were ambitious of repreſenting the counties, but careleſs of the boroughs. A ſeat in the houſe was in itſelf of ſmall importance; but the former became a point of honour among the gentlemen.

The king did not affect ſplendid equipages, nor coſtly furniture, nor a luxurious table, nor prodigal miſtreſſes. His buildings too were not ſumptuous; though the banqueting-houſe muſt not be forgotten, as a monu-

a monument which does honour to his reign. Hunting was his chief amusement, the cheapest pleasure in which a king can indulge himself. His expences were the effects of liberality, rather than of luxury. One day, it is said while he was standing amidst some of his courtiers, a porter passed by loaded with money, which he was carrying to the treasury. The king observed, that Rich, afterwards earl of Holland, one of his favorites, whispered something to one standing near him. Upon enquiry he found that Rich had said, *How happy would that money make me!* Without hesitation James bestowed it all upon him, though it amounted to 5000 pounds. He added, *I think myself very happy in having an opportunity of obliging a worthy man, whom I love.* The generosity of James was more the result of a benign humour or light fancy, than of reason or judgment. The objects of it were such as could render themselves agreeable to him in his loose hours; not such as were endowed with great merit, or who possessed talents or popularity, which could strengthen his interest with the public.

By the industry and frugality introduced, during the commonwealth, among the people in general, and the citizens in particular, they were enabled to augment their capitals. It appears, however, that Cromwell, had he lived, and been firmly settled in the government, would have broken through the sober maxims of the republicans; for some time before his death, he affected great magnificence in his person, court, and attendants. Charles II. was a man of social temper, of an easy address, and a lively and animated conversation. His courtiers partook much of the character of their prince. They were chiefly men of the world; and many of them distinguished by their wit, gallantry and spirit. But having all experienced the insolence of puritanical tyranny, or been exposed to the neglect of poverty, they had imbibed, under the pressure of adversity, the most libertine opinions both in regard to religion and morals; and in greedily enjoying their good fortune, after the restoration, in gratifying the

ſelfiſhneſs, and contrafting the language and the manners of hypocriſy, they ſhamefully violated the laws of decency and decorum. Elated at the return of their ſovereign, the whole royal party diſſolved in thoughtleſs jollity; and even many of the republicans, but eſpecially the younger ſort, and the women, were glad to be releaſed from the gloomy auſterity of the commonwealth. A general relaxation of manners took place. Pleaſure became the univerſal object, and love, the prevailing taſte. But that love was rather an appetite than a paſſion; and though the ladies ſacrificed freely to it, they were never able to inſpire their paramours either with ſentiment or delicacy.

CHAP. IX.

INCIDENTS AND CURIOUS PARTICULARS. A. D. 1608—1688.

IN 1611, baronets were firſt created in England by James I.

In 1626, the barometer was invented by Torricelli, an illuſtrious mathematician and philoſopher of Italy. About the ſame time Drebellius, a celebrated Dutch philoſopher, invented the thermometer and microſcope.

In 1642, Charles I. impeached five members, who had oppoſed his arbitrary meaſures, which began the civil war in England.

In 1662, pendulum clocks were invented by John Fromentel, a Dutchman. During the ſame year, fire-engines were invented.

In 1668, St. James's park was planted, and made a thorough-fare for public uſe by Charles II.

There was a private affair, in the reign of this monarch, which diſguſted the houſe of commons, and required ſome pains to accommodate it. The uſual method of thoſe who oppoſed the court in the money bills, was, if they failed in the main vote, as to the extent of the ſupply, to levy the money upon ſuch funds

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as they expected would be unacceptable, or would prove deficient. It was proposed to lay an imposition upon playhouses. The courtiers objected, that the players were the king's servants, and a part of his pleasure. Sir John Coventry, a gentleman of the country party, asked, "whether the king's pleasure lay among the male or female players?" This stroke of satire was aimed at Charles, who, besides his mistresses of higher quality, entertained at that time two actresses, Davis, and Nell Gwin. The king received not the raillery with the good humour, which might have been expected. It was said, that this being the first time, that respect to majesty had been publicly violated, it was necessary, by some severe chastisement, to make Coventry an example to all who might incline to tread in his footsteps. Some officers of the guards were to way-lay him, and to set a mark upon him. He defended himself with bravery, and after wounding several of the assailants, was disarmed with some difficulty. They cut his nose to the bone, in order, as they said, to teach him what respect he owed to the king. The commons were inflamed by this indignity offered to one of their members, on account of words spoken in the house. They passed a law, which made it capital to maim any person; and they enacted, that those criminals, who had assaulted Coventry, should be incapable of receiving a pardon from the crown.

There was another private affair transacted about this time, by which the king was as much exposed to the imputation of a capricious lenity, as he was here blamed for unnecessary severity. Blood, a disbanded officer of the protector's had been engaged in the conspiracy for raising an insurrection in Ireland, for which he was attainted, and some of his accomplices capitally punished. The daring villain meditated revenge upon the duke of Ormond, the lord lieutenant. Having by artifice drawn off the duke's footman, he attacked his coach in the night time, as it drove along St. James's street in London, and made himself master of his person. He might here have

finished the crime, had he not meditated refinements in his vengeance: he was resolved to hang the duke at Tyburn; and for that purpose bound him, and mounted him on horseback behind one of his companions. They were advanced a good way into the fields, when the duke, making efforts for his liberty, threw himself to the ground, and brought down with him the assassin to whom he was fastened. They were struggling together in the mire, when Ormond's servants, whom the alarm had reached, came and saved him. Blood was soon after taken in the attempt to steal the crown. The court had use for so complete a villain, and sunk so low as to apply to his grace for pardon for the offence against him. The duke granted it with a generous indignation. Blood had a pension of five hundred a year, and was constantly seen in the presence-chamber; to shew, it was supposed, to the great uncomplying men of the time, what a ready instrument the ministry had to revenge any attempt that might be made against them in the cause of liberty.

BOOK IX.

CHAP. I.

MILITARY HISTORY FROM THE REVOLUTION, IN 1688, TO THE PRESENT TIME.

THE prince of Orange had been invited to England by a coalition of parties, united by a common ſenſe of danger; but this tie was no ſooner broken than they flew aſunder, and each reſumed its original bias. Their mutual jealouſy, and rancour revived, and king William ſoon found himſelf at the head of a faction. As he had been bred a calviniſt, and always expreſſed an abhorrence of ſpiritual perſecution, the preſbyterians, and other proteſtant diſſenters, conſidered him as their peculiar protector, and entered into his intereſts with the moſt zealous fervour and aſſiduity. For the ſame reaſons, the friends of the church became jealous of his proceedings, and employed all their influence in thwarting his meaſures. He therefore, reſolved to mortify the church, and gratify his own friends, at the ſame time, by removing the obſtacles affixed to nonconformity, in order that all proteſtant diſſenters might be capable of enjoying and exerciſing civil employments. Though he was oppoſed in this deſign, a bill was brought in, and paſſed into a law, indulging the diſſenters with a toleration, provided they held no private aſſemblies or conventicles, with the door ſhut. Even the papiſts felt the benign influence of William's moderation in ſpiritual matters.

James and his queen had been received with the moſt cordial hoſpitality by the French monarch, who

undertook to re-eſtabliſh them on the throne of England. Succours were accordingly prepared, and a fleet got ready for this purpoſe. The French king is ſaid to have offered James an army of fifteen thouſand natives of France; to which he replied, that he would ſucceed by his own ſubjects, or periſh in the attempt. He contented himſelf with about twelve hundred Britiſh ſubjects, and a good number of French officers, with whom he embarked at Breſt, in 14 ſhips of the line, beſides frigates and tranſports, and landed at Kinſale, in Ireland, on the 12th day of March. Soon after, he made his public entry into Dublin, amidſt the acclamations of the inhabitants.

Having there iſſued writs for ſummoning a parliament, and made ſome other regulations, James, attended by Tyrconnel, the lord lieutenant, marched with his forces, and poſſeſſed himſelf of Coleraine. He then laid ſiege to Londonderry, a town of no great importance in itſelf, but rendered famous by the perſeverance with which it oppoſed the attacks of its beſiegers. Though the place was ill fortified, and the garriſon chiefly conſiſted of people unacquainted with military diſcipline; though they were deſtitute of proviſions, and beſieged by the king in perſon, at the head of a formidable army; they bravely held out till they received relief. During the ſiege, the garriſon endured inexpreſſible fatigue, and were reduced to the neceſſity of feeding on the fleſh of horſes, dogs, cats, rats, and other loathſome food. In this extremity, two ſhips laden with proviſions, ſailed up the river; and having broken a boom which the enemy had laid acroſs it, and likewiſe ſuſtained a very hot fire from both ſides of the river, they arrived in ſafety at the town, to the inexpreſſible joy of the inhabitants. The army of James was ſo diſpirited by the ſucceſs of this enterpriſe, that they abandoned the ſiege in the night, having loſt a great number of men before the place.

In 1690, king William landed in Ireland with a gallant army, when he fought the memorable battle of the Boyne, in which, though he had the misfortune

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to loſe the brave duke of Schomberg, yet he gained a complete victory over the French and Iriſh, and obliged king James to retire to Dublin, and make all the haſte he could back to France. The next year general Gincle marched againſt the Iriſh forces, poſted in a very advantageous ſituation, near the caſtle of Aghrim, with a large bog in their front. The Engliſh met with a deſperate reſiſtance; but having paſſed through the moraſs, with amazing intrepidity, they at laſt put the enemy to flight. After this entire defeat, Galway ſurrendered, and Limerick capitulated, by which an end was put to the Iriſh war, and all Ireland was reduced to the obedience of William and Mary.

The king having ſettled the domeſtic affairs of the nation, and exerted uncommon care and aſſiduity in equipping a formidable fleet, embarked again for Holland. While he was there, promoting the grand confederacy, the French king reſolved to invade England once more, in order to reſtore James to the throne; when the emiſſaries and partizans began to beſtir themſelves. The exiled monarch repaired to La Hogue, and was ready to embark, with a conſiderable force, on board the French fleet, commanded by the count de Tourville. The miniſtry of England were not unacquainted with theſe proceedings. Admiral Ruſſel was ordered to put to ſea with all poſſible expedition; and, being reinforced by the Dutch ſquadron, he ſailed for the coaſt of France with a fleet of ninety-nine ſhips of the line, beſides frigates and fire-ſhips. Next day he diſcovered the enemy's fleet under Tourville, which conſiſted of ſixty-three ſhips of the line. The memorable battle of La Hogue now commenced, in which a great part of the French fleet was deſtroyed. This victory proved ſo deciſive, that during the remaining part of the war, the French would not hazard another battle by ſea. James returned in deſpair to St. Germains, where his queen had been delivered of a daughter in his abſence. In Flanders, during this campaign, the French took Namur in the face of the allies; and ſoon after, the Engliſh were defeated at

Steenkirk, by the duke of Luxembourg. But notwithstanding all his overthrows, William continued a respectable enemy to the French nation, by dint of invincible fortitude, and a genius fruitful in resources.

About this time, a dissension took place between Mary and her sister Anne, princess of Denmark, who underwent every mortification the court could inflict. The princess had lately been reconciled to her father, and now entered with great zeal into his views.

In 1694, king William gave the royal assent to the triennial bill, which enacted that a parliament should at least be held once in three years. During the time this bill was depending, Dr. John Tillotson, archbishop of Canterbury, died of a fit of the palsy, sincerely lamented by the public, and deeply regretted by the king and queen, who shed tears of sorrow at his death. The queen did not long survive her favourite prelate. About a month after his decease, she was taken ill of the small-pox, and died on the 28th day of December, in the 33d year of her age, and the 6th of her reign. Though William was neither a fond husband, nor subject to feelings of a delicate kind, he exhibited every symptom of an unfeigned grief upon the death of the queen.

The princess of Denmark was induced, by the earl of Sunderland, to send a letter of condolence, on the death of her sister, to the king. Having now obtained a nearer prospect of the crown, she was easily persuaded to adopt an appearance of reconciliation with William. She was admitted into the presence of the king, who presented her with her sister's jewels, and conferred some other favours on her, more from political views, than affection for her person.

After the death of queen Mary, the friends of James renewed their practices for effecting a restoration of that monarch. Certain individuals, whose zeal for James overshot their discretion, now formed a design to seize king William, and convey him to France, or put him to death, in case of resistance. A descent on England was likewise projected. But all their schemes

proved abortive. A conſpiracy, which ſir George Barclay, and ſeveral others, had entered into, of aſſaſſinating the king, on his return from Richmond, being diſcovered, the conſpirators entered into an aſſociation, binding themſelves to aſſiſt each other in ſupport of the king and his government.

In 1697, a negociation for peace was opened between the contending powers, at Ryſwick, when the articles were ſubſcribed by the Dutch, Engliſh, Spaniſh, and French ambaſſadors. By this treaty, the French king, notwithſtanding James had publicly remonſtrated againſt his treating with an uſurper, engaged, that he would not diſturb or diſquiet the king of Great Britain in the poſſeſſion of his realms or government; nor aſſiſt his enemies; nor favour conſpiracies againſt his perſon.

In 1701, king James expired at St. Germains, in the 68th year of his age. This unfortunate monarch, ſince the miſcarriage of his laſt attempt for recovering his throne, had laid aſide all thoughts of worldly grandeur, and devoted his whole attention to the concerns of his ſoul. Hunting was his chief diverſion; but religion was his conſtant care. He led a harmleſs life, and ſubjected himſelf to uncommon penance and mortification. His pride and arbitrary temper ſeem to have vaniſhed with his greatneſs. He died with the moſt fervent marks of devotion, and was interred at his own requeſt in the church of the Engliſh benedictines at Paris, without any funeral ſolemnity.

Though an act paſſed, ſome months before the death of James, for ſettling the ſucceſſion to the crown in the houſe of Hanover, his ſon was now proclaimed king of England, at St. Germains, and treated as ſuch by the court of Verſailles. His title was likewiſe recognized by the king of Spain, the duke of Savoy, and the pope. William complained much of this manifeſt violation of the treaty of Ryſwick, and immediately recalled his ambaſſador from Paris. On the other hand, Lewis diſperſed a manifeſto through all the courts of Europe, in vindication of his own conduct.

the tory interest. On the other hand, the whigs promoted it with such zeal, that it passed in the house of commons by a majority of 114. It made its way through the house of lords with equal dispatch; and when it received the royal sanction, the queen expressed the utmost satisfaction.

In 1710, means were found to convince the queen, that the whigs were no friends to the national religion. The general cry of the deluded people was, that "*the church was in danger*," which, though groundless, had great effects. One Sacheverel, an ignorant, worthless preacher, had espoused this clamour in one of his sermons, with the slavish doctrines of passive obedience, and non-resistance. It was agreed by both parties to try their strength in this man's cause. He was impeached by the commons, and found guilty by the lords, who ventured to pass upon him only a very small censure. After this trial, the queen's affection was entirely alienated from the duchess of Marlborough and the whig administration. Her friends lost their places, which were supplied by tories, and even the command of the army was taken from the duke of Marlborough, and given to the duke of Ormond. Thus the honour of the nation was sacrificed to court intrigues, managed by Mrs. Masham, a relation of the duchess of Marlborough, who had supplanted her benefactress.

The office of lord high treasurer was given to Mr. Harley, afterwards earl of Oxford, whose chief coadjutor, was Henry St. John, the famous lord Bolingbroke, a man of warm imagination and elegant taste, penetrating, eloquent, and ambitious; but of loose and fluctuating principles.

In 1712, lord Bolingbroke was sent to Versailles to remove all obstructions to the treaty between England and France. He was accompanied by Mr. Prior, and was received by Lewis with the most distinguished marks of respect. The negociation being finished in a few days, Bolingbroke returned to England.

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In 1713, the ratifications of the treaty being exchanged, peace was proclaimed in London, with the uſual ceremonies. In this treaty, Spain yielded up to England all right to Gibraltar, and the iſland of Minorca, while France reſigned her pretenſions to Hudſon's bay, Nova-Scotia, St. Chriſtopher's, and Newfoundland. It was likewiſe agreed, that the fortifications of Dunkirk ſhould be demoliſhed, and its port deſtroyed.

After the peace had received the ſanction of the parliament, the miniſters, no longer reſtrained by the tie of common danger, gave looſe to their mutual animoſity. Bolingbroke charged the earl of Oxford with having maintained a private correſpondence with the houſe of Hanover. Oxford wrote a letter to the queen, in which he endeavoured to juſtify his own conduct, and expoſe the turbulent and ambitious ſpirit of his rival. In all probability, the treaſurer's greateſt crime was, his having given umbrage to the favourite, lady Maſham. Being therefore removed from his employment, Bolingbroke triumphed in the victory he had obtained. His lordſhip's ambition, however, was defeated, as the place of lord treaſurer was filled by the duke of Shrewſbury.

The confuſion at court, upon this occaſion, had ſuch an effect on the queen's ſpirits and conſtitution, which were already greatly impaired by the gout, that ſhe was immediately ſeized with a lethargic diſorder, of which ſhe ſoon after expired, in the 50th year of her age, and the 13th of her reign. A. D. 1714. Though ſhe was a favourite with neither party in parliament till towards the end of her reign, when the tories affected to idolize her, yet the people dignified her with the name of *the good queen Anne*.

The queen had no ſooner breathed her laſt, than orders were iſſued by the regency, for proclaiming king George, in England, Scotland, and Ireland. The earl of Dorſet was then appointed to carry to Hanover the intimation of his majeſty's acceſſion, and to attend him on his journey to England. This prince, who was

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ſon of Erneſt Auguſtus, firſt duke, and afterwards elector of Hanover, and the princeſs Sophia, grand daughter of James I. was in the 55th year of his age when he aſcended the throne of Great Britain, in purſuance to the act of ſucceſſion. Notwithſtanding the divided ſtate of the kingdom, the event took place without the leaſt oppoſition, tumult, or ſign of popular diſcontent.

On the 17th of September, the king, accompanied by the electoral prince, landed at Greenwich, where he was received by the duke of Northumberland, captain of the life-guards, and the lords of the regency. He walked to his houſe in Greenwich park; and when he retired to his bed-chamber, he ſent for thoſe of the nobility who had diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their zeal for his ſucceſſion; but the duke of Ormond, the lord chancellor, and lord Trevor, were not of the number. And the earl of Oxford, after having, the next morning, remained a conſiderable time unnoticed among the croud, was only permitted to kiſs his majeſty's hand. On the 20th, the king paſſed through London, in his way to St. James's, with a numerous attendance of nobility, and great magnificence.

An inſtantaneous and total change was ſoon effected in every office of honour and advantage. The tories, againſt whom George had been miſled into ſtrong prepoſſeſſions, were excluded from all ſhare of the royal favour, which was wholly engroſſed by the whigs. Theſe early marks of averſion to that party, which the king took no pains to conceal, alienated the minds of many from his perſon and government, who might otherwiſe have ſerved him with fidelity and affection. Among the principal changes, the duke of Ormond was diſmiſſed from the command of the army, which his majeſty reſtored to the duke of Marlborough, whom he likewiſe appointed maſter of the ordnance. Mr. Pulteney became ſecretary at war; and Mr. Walpole, who had already undertaken to manage the houſe of commons, was gratified with the double place of paymaſter to the army and to Chelſea hoſpital.

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The number of the malecontents in England was now conſiderably increaſed by the king's attachment to the whig faction. The clamour of the church's being in danger was revived, jealouſies were excited, ſeditious libels diſperſed, and dangerous tumults raiſed in different parts of the kingdom.

In 1715, general Stanhope delivered to the houſe of commons 14 volumes, conſiſting of all the papers relating to the late negociations of peace and commerce, as well as to the ceſſation of arms, and moved that they might be referred to a ſelect committee. Mr. Walpole, as chairman, ſoon after declared to the houſe that the report was ready, and in the mean time moved, that a warrant might be iſſued by the ſpeaker for apprehending ſeveral perſons, particularly Mr. Matthew Prior, and Mr. Thomas Harley, who being in their places were immediately taken into cuſtody. Mr. Walpole then impeached lords Bolingbroke and Oxford. When the latter appeared in the houſe next day, he found himſelf avoided by his brother peers, as infectious, and retired with ſigns of confuſion. The duke of Ormond was likewiſe impeached of high treaſon, who, perceiving that he could not expect the benefit of an impartial trial, conſulted his own ſafety, by withdrawing himſelf from the kingdom. When the earl of Oxford was ſent to the tower, he was attended by a prodigious concourſe of people, who exclaimed againſt his perſecutors. The cry upon this occaſion was, "High-church, Ormond and Oxford for ever." The duke of Ormond and lord Bolingbroke, who had retired to the continent, having omitted to ſurrender themſelves within the time limited, the houſe of lords ordered the earl-marſhal to raze out of the liſt of peers their names and armorial bearings. Inventories were taken of their perſonal eſtates; and the duke's atchievement, as knight of the garter, was taken down from St. George's chapel at Windſor.

By this time, a rebellion was actually begun in Scotland. The diſſenſions, occaſioned in that country by the union, had never been wholly appeaſed; and

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as they had no hopes of diſſolving that treaty, they determined to attempt ſomething of conſequence in favour of the pretender. They maintained a correſpondence with the malecontents in England, who finding themſelves totally excluded from any ſhare in the government and legiſlature, and expoſed to the inſolence and fury of a faction which they deſpiſed, began to wiſh in earneſt for a revolution. The chevalier de St. George took advantage of this favourable diſpoſition, and by the aſſiſtance of the French king, who favoured him in ſecret, was enabled to prepare a ſmall armament in the port of Havre. The duke of Ormond and lord Bolingbroke, having retired to France, engaged in his ſervice, and correſponded with the tories of England.

All theſe intrigues and machinations were diſcovered, and communicated to the court of London, by the earl of Stair, who then reſided as Engliſh ambaſſador at Paris. This nobleman detected the chevalier's ſcheme while it was yet in embryo, and he gave ſuch early notice of it, as enabled the king to take effectual meaſures for defeating the deſign. But the moſt fatal blow to the pretender's intereſt in France, was the death of Lewis XIV. that oſtentatious tyrant, who, for above half a century, ſacrificed the repoſe of Chriſtendom to his inſatiate vanity and ambition. Upon the deceaſe of Lewis, the duke of Orleans entered into engagements with the king of Great Britain; and inſtead of aſſiſting the pretender, amuſed his agents with myſterious and equivocal expreſſions, calculated to fruſtrate the deſign of the expedition.

The partizans of the chevalier had proceeded too far to retreat with ſafety, and, therefore, reſolved to try their fortune in the field. The earl of Mar aſſembled 300 of his own vaſſals, proclaimed the pretender at Caſtletown, and ſet up his ſtandard at Brae-Mar, on the 6th of September. Soon after, two veſſels arrived at Arbroath, from Havre, with arms, ammunition, and a great number of officers, who aſſured the earl of Mar, that the chevalier would ſoon be with them in perſon.

perſon. The earl now aſſumed the title of lieutenant-general of the pretender's forces, and in a ſhort time found himſelf at the head of 10,000 men, well armed. Among the earl's adherents, were the marquiſſes of Huntly and Tullibardine, the earls of Marſchal and Southeſk, and ſeveral other chiefs of the jacobite clans.

In England, the earl of Derwentwater and Mr. Forſter took the field with a body of horſe. Being joined by ſome gentlemen from the borders of Scotland, they proclaimed the pretender in Warkworth, Morpeth, and Alnwick. They then attempted to ſeize Newcaſtle, but being unſucceſsful, they retired towards Scotland. There they were reinforced by ſome of the Scottiſh inſurgents, and returning again into England, were overpowered at Preſton, in Lancaſhire, by the king's forces, under the generals Wills and Carpenter, who obliged them to lay down their arms.

The very ſame day on which the rebels were ſubdued at Preſton, the duke of Argyle defeated the rebel army, under the earl of Mar, conſiſting of about 8 or 9000 men, at Sheriff-muir, about four miles from Aberdeen, when the earl of Mar retreated to Perth, after an obſtinate fight, in which both ſides claimed the victory; though the earl, being fruſtrated in his deſign of croſſing the Forth, ſhewed that the king's forces had the advantage.

The chevalier had been amuſed with the hope of ſeeing the whole kingdom of England riſe up as one man in his behalf. He was, however, convinced of the vanity of his expectations in that quarter, by a fruitleſs voyage, which the duke of Ormond had made to the weſtern coaſt. Nothing, therefore, remained for him, but to hazard his perſon among his friends in Scotland. He accordingly arrived in that country, and after being ſolemnly proclaimed, went to Scone, where he exerciſed ſome acts of royalty, and ſeemed determined to ſtay until the ceremony of his coronation ſhould be performed. The chiefs of his party, hearing that the king's army, commanded by the duke of Argyle, had been reinforced by 6000 Dutch troops,

and

and were marching towards them, being deſtitute of money, arms, ammunition, and proviſion, reſolved to abandon the enterpriſe. The chevalier was perſuaded to embark on board a ſmall French ſhip that lay in the harbour of Montroſe, from whence, attended by the earl of Mar, and a few other Scottiſh noblemen, he arrived in five days at Graveline. Such was the iſſue of a rebellion, which proved fatal to many noble families.

The houſe of commons impeached the earls of Derwentwater, Nithſdale, Carnwath, and Wintoun; together with the lords Widdrington, Kenmuir, and Nairn, for being concerned in it. They were all found guilty, and moſt of them ſuffered, notwithſtanding the mercy of the king was ſtrenuouſly implored in their behalf. Bills of high treaſon were found in London againſt Mr. Forſter, Mackintoſh, and twenty of their confederates. Two-and-twenty were executed at Preſton and Mancheſter; and four or five were hanged, drawn, and quartered, at Tyburn.

A few weeks after the execution of the rebels, the king gave the royal aſſent to an act for enlarging the time of continuance of parliaments for ſeven years, inſtead of three years, as by the triennial act, paſſed in the reign of king William.

Robert Walpole, Eſq. was now firſt commiſſioner of the treaſury, and chancellor of the exchequer.

In 1718, a quadruple alliance was ſigned at London, between the emperor, Great Britain, and Holland. About the ſame time ſir George Byng entirely defeated the Spaniſh fleet in the Mediterranean, the Spaniards having attacked the citadel of Meſſina, in Sicily, which was agreed to be given up to the emperor. War was ſoon after declared againſt Spain, both by Great Britain and France.

In 1720, the king having recommended to the commons the conſideration of proper means for leſſening the national debt, it proved a prelude to the famous South Sea act, which became productive of ſo much miſchief and infatuation. The ſcheme was projected by

by ſir John Blunt, a director of the South Sea company, who had been bred a ſcrivener, and was poſſeſſed of all the cunning, plauſibility, and boldneſs, requiſite for ſuch an undertaking. The South Sea company and the Bank of England laid their ſeveral plans before the houſe, for reducing all the public funds into one. This occaſioned many warm debates; but the commons pronounced at laſt in favour of the South Sea company, to which great commercial privileges were granted in conſequence. Their propoſals were accepted on the firſt of February, and the act received the royal aſſent in April. As ſoon as the bill was paſſed, through the ſcandalous arts practiſed to enhance the value of the ſtock, and decoy the unwary, the ſtock gradually roſe, in June, to the amazing ſum of 1000 pounds for each ſhare of one hundred. The whole nation was infected with the ſpirit of ſtock-jobbing, to an aſtoniſhing degree; and Exchange Alley was crouded with a ſtrange concourſe of every rank and denomination, whigs and tories, male and female. All other profeſſions and employments were utterly neglected, and the attention of the people was wholly engroſſed by this and other chimerical ſchemes, which were known by the name of *bubbles*. New companies ſtarted up every day, under the countenance of the principal nobility. Above one hundred ſuch ſchemes were projected and put in execution, to the ruin of many thouſands.

The infatuation prevailed till the 8th day of September, when the ſtocks began to fall. The number of ſellers daily increaſed. On the 29th it had ſunk to 150. Several eminent goldſmiths and bankers, who had lent large ſums upon it, were obliged to ſtop payment, and abſconded. Public credit ſuſtained a terrible ſhock, and the nation was thrown into a dangerous ferment. An infinite number of families were overwhelmed with ruin; ſo that nothing was heard but ravings of grief, diſappointment, and deſpair.

The houſe of commons, at length, took the affair into conſideration; and a committee of ſecrecy was

chosen by ballot, to examine the books, papers, and proceedings of the company. In a short time the committee made a report, that they had discovered a train of the deepest villainy and fraud that hell ever contrived to ruin a nation. Some of the directors and principal officers of the company were, in consequence thereof, taken into custody. Others were expelled the house of commons. The estates of the greatest delinquents were confiscated towards making good the damages sustained by the public; and such prudent regulations were made by the house of commons, as the case would admit of. A similar fraud had been practised in France, by a Mississippi company under the direction of Mr. John Law, a Scotchman; but this did not serve as a warning to the English.

In 1722, the king is said to have received from the duke of Orleans certain information of a fresh conspiracy against his person and government, in favour of the pretender. A camp was immediately formed in Hyde-park, and several suspected persons were apprehended. Doctor Atterbury, bishop of Rochester, was seized, and his papers having been examined before a committee of the council, he was committed to the tower for high treason. The duke of Norfolk, the earl of Orrery, the lords North and Grey, and some of inferior rank, were confined to the same place. Mr. Layer, a young gentleman of the temple, was tried at the King's-bench, for enlisting men into the pretender's service; of which being found guilty, he was hanged at Tyburn, and his head fixed on Temple-bar. He was the only person, who suffered death on this occasion. The bishop of Rochester was deprived of his office and benefice, and banished the kingdom; and the king admitted the imprisoned lords and gentlemen to bail. At the same time he granted a pardon to lord Bolingbroke, and soon after an act passed restoring that nobleman to his family estate.

The session of parliament, in 1724, was distinguished by the trial of the earl of Macclesfield, lord-chancellor of England. This nobleman, having connived at certain

tain venal practices, touching the ſale of places, and the money of ſuitors depoſited with the maſters of chancery, ſo as to incur the general reproach of the nation, was impeached by the commons, at the bar of the upper houſe. The trial laſted 20 days. The earl was convicted of fraudulent practices, and condemned in a fine of 30,000l. with impriſonment till that ſum ſhould be paid. He was immediately committed to the tower, where he continued about ſix weeks; but upon paying the money, he was diſcharged, and ſir Peter King ſucceeded him in the office of chancellor.

In 1726, the king having received advice of ſome inimical deſigns of the Spaniards, ſent a ſquadron, under the command of admiral Hoſier, to the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies. This brave officer, upon his arrival in thoſe ſeas, finding himſelf reſtricted by his orders from obeying the dictates of his courage, and ſeeing his beſt officers and men daily ſwept off by the unhealthy climate, and his ſhips expoſed to inevitable deſtruction from the worms, is ſaid to have died of a broken heart; while the people of England loudly clamoured againſt the unfortunate expedition.

In conſequence of theſe hoſtilities in the Weſt-Indies, the emperor and Spain prepared to make retaliation on the Engliſh; and the king of Spain laid ſiege to Gibraltar, with an army of twenty thouſand men. But the powers at variance, although they were extremely irritated againſt each other, being equally averſe to war, a treaty was opened at Aix-la-Chapelle, for adjuſting all differences, and conſolidating the peace of Europe. The ſiege of Gibraltar was raiſed, after it had laſted four months, during which the Spaniards loſt a great number of men by ſickneſs. A. D. 1727.

King George having appointed a regency, embarked at Greenwich, on the 3d day of June, and landing in Holland on the 7th, ſet out on his journey to Hanover. He was ſuddenly ſeized with a paralytic diſorder on the road, loſt the faculty of ſpeech, became lethargic, and being conveyed in a ſtate of inſenſibility, to

Oſnaburgh,

Oſnaburgh, he there expired, on the 11th of June, in the 68th year of his age, and the 13th of his reign. George I. married the princeſs Sophia Dorothy, daughter and heireſs of the duke of Zele, by whom he had iſſue, George II. and the queen of Pruſſia. He came to England extremely well-diſpoſed to govern his new ſubjects according to the maxims of the Britiſh conſtitution, and the genius of the people; and, if ever he ſeemed to deviate from theſe principles, we may take it for granted, that he was miſled by the venal ſuggeſtions of a miniſtry, whoſe power and influence were founded on corruption. His attachment to his German dominions, which has been much magnified, was made uſe of by the Tories to render him odious to the Engliſh nation.

George II. was proclaimed king of Great Britain on the 15th of June, being the day after the expreſs arrived with the account of the death of his father. All the great officers of ſtate were continued in their places. Sir Robert Walpole kept poſſeſſion of the Treaſury; and the ſyſtem of politics, which the late king had eſtabliſhed, underwent no ſort of alteration.

The king, in his ſpeech to both houſes, at the opening of the ſeſſion, profeſſed a fixed reſolution to merit the love and affection of his people, by maintaining them in the full enjoyment of their religious and civil rights. In return, 800,000l. per annum, were ſettled, by parliament, on the king, during his life; and 100,000l. a year, was likewiſe granted, by them, as a future proviſion for the queen, in caſe ſhe ſhould ſurvive his majeſty, together with the palace at Somerſet-houſe, and Richmond old park.

Some changes were ſoon after made in different departments of the civil œconomy. Lord viſcount Torrington was placed at the head of the admiralty; the earl of Weſtmorland was appointed firſt lord commiſſioner of trade and plantations; the earl of Cheſterfield, a nobleman remarkable for his wit, eloquence, and poliſhed manners, was nominated ambaſſador to the Hague; the duke of Devonſhire was dignified with the

the place of preſident of the council; and the duke of St. Alban's made maſter of horſe. On the 11th of October, the coronation of the king and queen was performed at Weſtminſter Abbey, with the uſual ſolemnity. By this time the courts of France and Spain were perfectly reconciled. All Europe was freed from the calamities of war; and the peace of Great Britain ſuffered no interruption, except from ſome tranſient tumults among the tinners of Cornwall, who, being provoked by a ſcarcity of corn, roſe in arms, and plundered the granaries of that county.

In 1728, petitions were delivered to the houſe of commons from the merchants of London, Liverpool, and Briſtol, complaining of the interruptions they had ſuffered in their trade for ſeveral years, by the depredations of the Spaniards in the Weſt Indies. Other merchants joining in the complaint, the houſe, in a grand committee, deliberated on the ſubject, examined evidence, and paſſed ſeveral reſolutions, in which the Spaniards were accuſed of violating the treaties ſubſiſting between the two crowns, and with having treated inhumanly the maſters and crews of ſhips belonging to Great Britain. They therefore addreſſed the king, deſiring that he would uſe his endeavours to procure ſatisfaction. The king promiſed to comply with the requeſt of the commons; and the following year he gave them to underſtand, that the peace of Europe was eſtabliſhed by the treaty of Seville, lately concluded. He aſſured them, that all former conventions made with Spain, in favour of the Britiſh trade and navigation, were renewed and confirmed by it, that the free uninterrupted exerciſe of their commerce was reſtored, and that the court of Spain had agreed to an ample reſtitution and reparation for the unlawful ſeizures and depredations complained of.

The year 1730 was not diſtinguiſhed by any action of great moment in Great Britain. Seven chiefs of the Cherokee nations of Indians, in America, were brought to England. Being introduced to the king, they laid their crown and regalia at his feet, and, by

an authentic deed, acknowledged themſelves ſubjects to his dominion. They were aſtoniſhed at the riches and magnificence of the Britiſh court.

The hiſtory of Britain, at this period, chiefly conſiſts of an annual revolution of debates in parliament, in which the ſame arguments perpetually recur on the ſame ſubjects. Among theſe, ſir Robert Walpole's famous exciſe bill merits attention. It met with uncommon oppoſition both within and without doors. After long and violent debates had been maintained by all the able ſpeakers on both ſides, it was carried in the houſe of commons by a majority of ſixty-one voices. The oppoſition which the miniſter encountered without doors, however, prevented his project from being carried into execution. The whole nation was alarmed, and clamoured loudly againſt it. The populace crowded round Weſtminſter-hall, blocking up all the avenues to the houſe of commons. They even inſulted the perſons of thoſe members, who had voted for the miniſtry on this occaſion, and ſir Robert Walpole began to be in fear of his life. He therefore thought proper to drop the deſign, by moving that the ſecond reading of the bill ſhould be put off. The miſcarriage of the bill was celebrated with public rejoicings in London and Weſtminſter; and the miniſter was burnt in effigy by the populace.

The ſubject which of all others employed at this time, the eloquence and abilities of the members on both ſides, in the houſe of commons, was a motion for repealing the ſeptennial act, and for the more frequent meeting and calling of parliaments. Many judicious arguments were brought for and againſt it. The miniſtry alledged that the increaſe of papiſts and jacobites rendered it dangerous to weaken the hands of government. They challenged the oppoſition to produce one inſtance, in which the leaſt encroachment had been made on the liberties of the people; and they defied the moſt ingenious malice to prove, that his preſent majeſty had ever endeavoured to extend any branch of the prerogative, beyond its legal bounds. In oppoſi-

tion to this, many warm, nervous, and pathetic remonſtrances were urged in favour of the motion. It was ſuppreſſed by dint of numbers.

In 1736, the marriage of Frederic, prince of Wales, with the princeſs of Saxe-Gotha, was celebrated. Upon this occaſion Mr. Pulteney moved for an addreſs of congratulation to his majeſty; and was ſupported by Mr. George Littleton, and Mr. William Pitt, who ſeized this opportunity of pronouncing elegant panegyrics on the prince of Wales and his amiable conſort. Theſe two young members ſoon diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the houſe by their eloquence and ſuperior talents.

The beginning of the year 1737 was diſtinguiſhed by a rupture in the royal family, occaſioned by the prince of Wales carrying away the princeſs of Wales, then near her time, from Hampton-court, where their majeſties reſided, to St. James's, where ſhe was that night delivered of Auguſta, now princeſs of Brunſwick. On the 20th of November died queen Caroline, in the 55th year of her age. The diſſention ſtill ſubſiſted between the prince of Wales and his father, who ordered the lord chamberlain to ſignify publicly, that no perſon who viſited the prince, ſhould be admitted to the court at St. James's.

In 1738, the princeſs of Wales was delivered of a ſon, who was baptized by the name of George, and is now king of Great Britain. His birth was celebrated with uncommon rejoicings, and numerous addreſſes were preſented to the king upon the occaſion. But the prince of Wales ſtill laboured under the diſpleaſure of his majeſty, and lived like a private gentleman, cultivating the virtues of ſocial life.

When the ſeſſion of parliament opened, the king, in his ſpeech, informed his people, that a convention had been concluded and ratified between him and the king of Spain; who had obliged himſelf to make reparation to the Britiſh ſubjects for their loſſes, by certain ſtipulated payments. This famous convention, which was concluded at the Pardo, on the 14th of January,

cauſed great debates in both houſes. In the houſe of commons, the two contending parties ſummoned their whole force for the approaching diſpute. On the day appointed for conſidering the convention, 400 members had taken their ſeats by eight in the morning. All the officers and adherents of the prince of Wales joined the oppoſition; and he himſelf ſat in the gallery to hear the debate. Among many others who ſpoke to the queſtion, Mr. Pitt, with an energy of argument and diction peculiar to himſelf, declaimed againſt the convention, as inſecure, unſatisfactory, and diſhonourable. Sir William Wyndham and Mr. Pulteney poured all the thunder of their eloquence againſt the inſolence of Spain, and the conceſſions of the Britiſh miniſtry. On the other ſide, ſir Robert Walpole exerted all his fortitude and dexterity, in defence of himſelf and his meaſures; and an addreſs of thanks to his majeſty was carried by a ſmall majority. To ſuch a degree of mutual animoſity were both parties inflamed, that the moſt eminent members of the minority actually retired from parliament, and were by the nation in general, revered as martyrs to the liberty of the people. In the houſe of lords, the debate was maintained with equal warmth. Lord Bathurſt argued againſt the articles with his uſual ſpirit, integrity, and good ſenſe. The earl of Cheſterfield attacked them with all the weight of argument, and all the poignancy of ſatire. And the duke of Argyle, no longer a partizan of the miniſtry, inveighed againſt them with all the fire, impetuoſity, and enthuſiaſm of declamation. They were defended by the duke of Newcaſtle, the earl of Cholmondeley, lord Harvey, the lord chancellor, and in particular the earl of Ilay, a nobleman of extenſive capacity and uncommon erudition. The diſpute was learned, long, and obſtinate; but ended in favour of the addreſs.

In 1739, war being declared againſt Spain, admiral Vernon was ſent with a ſquadron of ſhips to annoy their commerce and ſettlements in America, when he took the town of Porto-Bello, with only ſix ſhips. The

The next year, advice was received from Admiral Vernon, that he had bombarded Carthagena, and taken Fort Chagre.

The year 1741 was remarkable for an unſucceſsful expedition of general Wentworth and admiral Vernon againſt Carthagena, owing to a diſagreement which aroſe between them. The miſcarriage of this expedition, which had coſt the nation an immenſe ſum, was no ſooner known in England, than the kingdom was filled with murmur and diſcontent, and the people were depreſſed in proportion to that ſanguine hope by which they had been elevated. The general diſcontent of the people had a manifeſt influence upon the election of members for the new parliament. The miniſter now tottered on the brink of ruin. He knew that the majority of a ſingle vote would at any time commit him priſoner to the tower, ſhould ever the motion be made; and he ſaw that his ſafety could be effected by no other expedient than that of dividing the oppoſition. This he tried in ſeveral ways, and finding it fail, he declared he would never more ſit in the houſe of commons. The king adjourned the parliament for a few days, and in the interim, Sir Robert Walpole was created earl of Orford, and reſigned all his employments.

The newly created earl, however, ſoon found means to transfer the popular odium from himſelf, to thoſe who had profeſſed themſelves his keeneſt adverſaries. A coalition took place. Some were gratified with titles and offices; and all were aſſured, that in the management of affairs, a new ſyſtem would be adopted, according to the plan they themſelves ſhould propoſe.

On the 17th of February, the prince of Wales, attended by a numerous retinue of his adherents, waited on his majeſty, who received him graciouſly, and ordered his guards to be reſtored. This reconciliation, and the change in the miniſtry, were celebrated with public rejoicings all over the kingdom.

In 1745, the ſon of the old pretender reſolved to make an effort at gaining the Britiſh crown. Being

furniſhed with ſome money, and ſtill larger promiſes, from France, he embarked for Scotland on board a ſmall frigate, accompanied by the marquis of Tullibardine, and a few other deſperate adventurers. For the conqueſt of the whole Britiſh empire, he brought with him ſeven officers, and arms for 2000 men. He landed on the coaſt of Lochabar, and was in a little time joined by ſome Highland chiefs, and their vaſſals. He ſoon ſaw himſelf at the head of 1500 men, and invited others to join him by manifeſtoes, which were diſperſed throughout all the highlands. The miniſtry was no ſooner confirmed of the truth of his arrival, than ſir John Cope was ordered to oppoſe his progreſs. In the mean time, the young adventurer marched to Perth, where his father, the chevalier de St. George, was proclaimed king of Great Britain. The rebel army advanced towards Edinburgh, which they entered without oppoſition. Here, too, the pageantry of proclamation was performed. But, though he was maſter of the capital, yet the citadel, which goes by the name of the caſtle, with a good garriſon, under the command of general Gueſt, braved all his attempts. Sir John Cope, who was now reinforced by two regiments of dragoons, reſolved to march towards Edinburgh, and give him battle. The young adventurer attacked him near Preſton-Pans, and in a few minutes, totally routed him and his troops. In this victory the king loſt 1500 men, and the rebels not above eighty.

In the mean time, the pretender went forward with vigour; and, having advanced to Penrith, continued his irruption till he came to Manchester, where he eſtabliſhed his head quarters, and afterwards continued his rout to Derby. He determined, however, once more to return to Scotland, where, after many attacks and ſkirmiſhes, the duke of Cumberland put himſelf at the head of the troops at Edinburgh, which conſiſted of about 14,000 men. He reſolved to come to a battle as ſoon as poſſible, and marched northward, while the young adventurer retired at his approach. The duke advanced to Aberdeen, where he was joined by the

the duke of Gordon, and ſome other lords. The Highlanders were drawn up in order of battle on the plain of Culloden, to the number of 8000 men. The duke marched thither, and the battle began on the 16th of April, about one o'clock in the afternoon. In leſs than thirty minutes, the rebels were totally routed and the field covered with their dead bodies. The duke immediately after the battle ordered thirty-ſix deſerters to be executed. The rebellion being quelled, the legiſlature reſolved to make examples of thoſe who had been concerned in diſturbing the peace of the country. Many perſons who had borne arms in the rebel army were executed on Kennington common, near London, at Carliſle, at Penrith, and at York. The earls of Kilmarnock and Cromartie, and lord Balmerino, were tried by their peers in Weſtminſter-hall, and found guilty. Cromartie's life was ſpared, but the other two were beheaded on Tower-hill. Mr. Ratcliff, the titular earl of Derwentwater, ſoon after ſuffered the ſame fate; as did lord Lovat, who was turned of fourſcore. A few of the rebels obtained pardons, and a conſiderable number were tranſported to the plantations. A. D. 1746.

Meanwhile the flame of war continued to rage on the continent, and many were the defeats, the victories, and the negociations which took place, till they were put a ſtop to by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. The peace was celebrated by fire-works, illuminations, and rejoicings, in which the Engliſh, French, and Dutch, ſeemed to diſplay a ſpirit of emulation, in point of taſte and magnificence.

In 1751, the kingdom was alarmed with an event, which overwhelmed the people with grief and conſternation. His royal highneſs Frederic prince of Wales, in conſequence of a cold caught in his garden at Kew, was ſeized with a pleuritic diſorder; and after a ſhort illneſs, expired on the 20th day of March, to the unſpeakable affliction of his royal conſort, and the unfeigned ſorrow of all who wiſhed well to their country.

In

In 1753, while the powers on the continent of Europe were employed in ſtrengthening their reſpective intereſt, and concerting meaſures for preventing any interruption of the general tranquillity, matters were faſt ripening to a freſh rupture between the ſubjects of Great Britain and France, in different parts of America.

In 1754, the ambition and intrigues of the French court, by which the Britiſh intereſt was invaded and diſturbed on the continent of America, had alſo extended itſelf to the Eaſt Indies, where they endeavoured to embroil the Engliſh company with divers of the nabobs or princes.

In 1755, preparations for a vigorous naval war were carried on in England, with unparalleled ſpirit and ſucceſs. Admiral Boſcawen, with eleven ſhips of the line and a frigate, failed in April for the banks of Newfoundland; and in a few days after his arrival there, a French fleet from Breſt came to the ſame ſtation, under the command of monſieur de la Mothe. The thick fogs which prevail on theſe coaſts kept the two armaments from ſeeing each other; however, two of the French ſhips, of 64 guns, which had been ſeparated from the reſt, were taken, after a ſmart engagement, by two Engliſh 60 gun ſhips. As ſoon as the news of this action arrived at Paris, the French ambaſſador was recalled from London.

On the 7th of May, 1756, his Britannic majeſty declared war againſt France, and ſent admiral Byng, with a ſtrong fleet, to the relief of Minorca; but he neglecting to fulfil his inſtructions, the place was loſt, and he was tried and ſhot at Portſmouth. On the day fixed for his execution, about noon, he walked out of the great cabin to the quarter deck, where two files of marines were ready to execute the ſentence. He advanced with a firm ſtep, and a compoſed countenance, kneeled on a cuſhion, tied one handkerchief over his eyes, and dropped the other as a ſignal for his executioners, who fired a volley ſo deciſive, that five balls paſſed through his body, and he dropped down dead in an inſtant. The time in which this tragedy was acted,

did

did not exceed three minutes. Though there appears to have been ſome ſeverity exerciſed upon this occaſion, the example proved of ſingular ſervice to the nation during the enſuing war.

In order to conciliate the good will of thoſe whom their conduct had diſobliged, and remove, from their own ſhoulders, part of what future cenſure might enſue, the preſent miniſters admitted into a ſhare of the adminiſtration Mr. Pitt and Mr. Legge, two gentlemen eſteemed the moſt illuſtrious patriots, alike diſtinguiſhed and admired for their ſpirit and integrity. However much the people were charmed with thoſe promotions, the heterogeneous union was not of long continuance. As the new members of adminiſtration were neither to be perſuaded, nor intimidated, into any meaſures, which they thought repugnant to the true intereſt of their country, they were repreſented to their royal maſter as obſtinate, imperious, and ignorant. Theſe ſuggeſtions, artfully inculcated, produced the deſired effect. On the 9th of April, Mr. Pitt, by his majeſty's command, reſigned the ſeals of ſecretary of ſtate, as did Mr. Legge the office of chancellor of the exchequer. But the whole nation, riſing up as one man, in vindication of perſons idolized, and the king being ſolicited, in a great number of addreſſes, to reſtore them to their employments, his majeſty, ever ready to meet half way the wiſhes of his faithful people, reinſtated them in their places, in the month of June following, and thereby gave univerſal ſatisfaction. Mr. Fox, who had before principally conducted the political machine, was gratified with the office of receiver and pay-maſter-general of the land forces. Many other alterations were likewiſe made in the miniſterial arrangement. A. D. 1757.

During theſe tranſactions, Mr. Clive, one of the clerks of the Eaſt India company, diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the Eaſt Indies. After obtaining the rank of colonel, he had ſuch amazing ſucceſs, that all the towns and factories of the French on the coaſt of Coromandel,

mandel, except Pondicherry, were, in a few years, taken by the Engliſh.

In 1758, the duke of Marlborough landed near St. Maloes in France, burnt many ſhips, with a great quantity of naval ſtores. Lieutenant-general Bligh and captain Howe took Cherbourgh, and demoliſhed the fortifications. Soon after, captain Marſh took Senegal, and commodore Keppel the iſland of Goree, on the coaſt of Africa. On the 26th of July, Cape Breton was re-taken by general Amherſt and admiral Boſcawen, while fort Frontenac ſurrendered to lieutenant-general Bradſtreet, and fort Du Queſne to general Forbes.

On the 1ſt of May, the iſland of Gaudaloupe ſurrendered to the Engliſh. In the ſame month, Mariga-
A. D. 1759. lante, Santos, and Deſeada, became ſubject to Great Britain. On the 1ſt of Auguſt was fought the glorious battle of Minden, in which about 7,000 Engliſh defeated 80,000 of the French regular troops.

The command of the expedition againſt Quebec, the capital of the French Canada, was given to general Wolfe, a young officer of a true military genius. Wolfe's courage and perſeverance ſurmounted incredible difficulties. He gained the heights of Abraham, near Quebec, where he fought and defeated the French army, but was himſelf killed. As he ſtood conſpicuous in the front of the line, he had been aimed at by the enemy's markſmen, and received a ſhot in the wriſt, which, however, did not oblige him to quit the field. Having wrapped a handkerchief round his hand, he continued to give orders without the leaſt emotion, and advanced at the head of the grenadiers, when another ball unfortunately pierced the breaſt of this young hero, who fell in the arms of victory. Wolfe was a national loſs, univerſally lamented.

The affairs of the French being now deſperate, and their credit ruined, they reſolved upon an attempt to retrieve all by an invaſion of Great Britain; but, on the 18th of Auguſt, admiral Boſcawen attacked the

Toulon

Toulon ſquadron, commanded by M. de la Clue, near the Streights of Gibraltar, took three ſhips, and burnt two.

On the 20th of November, ſir Edward Hawke defeated the Breſt fleet, commanded by admiral Conflans, off the iſland of Dumet, in the bay of Biſcay. After this engagement, the French gave over all thoughts of their intended invaſion of Great Britain. In the beginning of next year, however, captain Thurot, a French marine adventurer, who with three ſloops of war had alarmed the coaſts of Scotland, and actually made a deſcent at Carrickfergus, in Ireland, was, on his return from thence, met, defeated, and killed, by captain Elliot, the commodore of three ſhips inferior in force to the Frenchman's ſquadron. A. D. 1760.

While the arms of Great Britain thus proſpered in every quarter of the world, the king, without any previous complaint, was ſuddenly ſeized with the agonies of death, at his palace of Kenſington. The diſorder, which occaſioned his deceaſe, appeared to be a rupture of the right ventricle of the heart, whereby a great quantity of blood was diſcharged through the aperture, into the ſurrounding pericardium. He died in the ſeventy-ſeventh year of his age, after a reign of thirty-four years, diſtinguiſhed by a variety of important events. The circumſtances, which chiefly marked his public character, were a predilection for his native country, and a cloſe attention to the political intereſts of the Germanic body.

CHAP. I. continued.

GEORGE II. was ſucceeded by his grandſon, our preſent ſovereign George III. who upon the death of his father, Frederic prince of Wales, became heir apparent to the throne. His majeſty's firſt care after his acceſſion, was to aſſemble the parliament, to whom he made a A. D. 1760.

ſpeech, in which he laid great ſtreſs upon his *being born and educated a Briton*. From this endearing expreſſion, and alſo from the general tenor of the ſpeech, the people conceived the fondeſt hopes of a happy and indulgent reign.

Mr. Pitt, who had conducted the war with a ſpirit and ſucceſs, never exceeded, if equalled, by any former miniſter, and who, by his penetration and ſagacity, had dived into the deſigns and intrigues of the enemy, diſcovered a private treaty that had been lately entered into between France and Spain, termed the family compact. He therefore propoſed in council, that a fleet ſhould be ſent to intercept the Spaniſh flota, or to block up Cadiz. But this being over-ruled, Mr. Pitt and lord Temple, who were the only members to ſupport it againſt the reſt of the council, thought proper to reſign; which produced a change in the miniſtry. The day after Mr. Pitt reſigned the ſeals, a penſion of 3,000l. a year was ſettled on him by his majeſty, for three lives; and at the ſame time, a title was conferred on his lady, and her iſſue.

The cloſe of the year 1761 left the affairs of all Europe, both military and political, in a very intereſting ſituation. The endeavours, which had been made to bring about a peace, ſerved only to increaſe the animoſity of the contending nations. Great Britain, in particular, was never in a more doubtful and dangerous ſituation; for at this time ſhe was engaged in a war, not only with all the great continental powers, but with the moſt conſiderable part of the maritime ſtrength of Europe. Succeſs, however, continued to attend her arms both by ſea and land. In the month of February, the iſland of Martinique was taken by rear-admiral Rodney, and general Monckton. The ſurrender of Martinique was followed by that of the iſlands of Grenada, St. Lucia, and St. Vincent.

An expedition was likewiſe undertaken againſt Havannah, the capital of the iſle of Cuba. The command of the navy was given to admiral Pococke, and of the land-forces, to the earl of Albemarle. This impor-

tant place ſurrendered to the Britiſh dominion on the 14th of Auguſt, after a ſiege of more than two months. So lucrative a conqueſt had never before been made. In ready money and valuable merchandize, the plunder did not much fall ſhort of three millions ſterling. In the Eaſt Indies, Manilla, the capital of the Philippine iſlands, was reduced by admiral Corniſh and general Draper. The capture of a Spaniſh regiſter ſhip, named the Hermione, by two Britiſh frigates, added another million ſterling to theſe valuable acquirements. The treaſure paſſed in triumph through Weſtminſter, to the Bank, the very hour that the prince of Wales was born.

Lord Bute, who, upon the king's acceſſion to the throne, had been appointed groom of the ſtole, and afterwards, in order to take a more open ſhare in the conduct of affairs, had accepted the ſeals as ſecretary of ſtate, now ſucceeded the duke of Newcaſtle as firſt lord of the treaſury. This nobleman being conſidered as the head of the whig intereſt, his reſignation was followed by that of ſeveral others, of great rank and influence. A. D. 1762.

In 1763, the preliminaries of peace, which had been ſigned by the Britiſh and French miniſters at Fontainbleu, were finally ratified on the 10th day of February. By this treaty, Great Britain received Florida in exchange for the Havannah. Canada, Cape-Breton, Tobago, Dominica, St. Vincent, Grenada, and Senegal, were retained; but all her other conqueſts were reſtored.

The political diſſenſions which firſt aroſe on the reſignation of Mr. Pitt, and became more violent when the duke of Newcaſtle retired, now rather increaſed than abated. The anti-miniſteriaiſts inſiſted that the peace was inadequate to our ſucceſſes; and that the intereſts of the nation had been ſacrificed, in order to render the favourite miniſter ſecure and permanent in his office. On the other hand, the earl of Bute, and his friends, as ſtrenuouſly maintained, that all the objects for which the war had commenced were obtained

ed and confirmed by the peace; and that the nation was ſo exhauſted, both with reſpect to men and money, that ſupplies for carrying on the war another year could not be raiſed without involving the country in the deepeſt diſtreſs. The debates in both houſes were uncommonly warm upon the ſubject; and the oppoſition were diſtinguiſhed by the title of the glorious minority. In addition to the popular clamour already excited againſt lord Bute, on the ſcore of favouritiſm, and on account of the peace, a tax laid on cyder, ſubject to the laws of exciſe, occaſioned ſuch violent attacks upon him, that he haſtily reſigned; and Mr. George Greville was appointed firſt lord of the treaſury in his room.

Many furious papers and pamphlets were at this time publiſhed by the partizans of both ſides. But one of the moſt violent of the whole was a periodical paper entitled *The North Briton*, conducted, it is ſaid, and principally compoſed, by Mr. Wilkes, member for the borough of Ayleſbury. The ſpeech of his majeſty to the parliament having been attacked with an indecent freedom in number forty-five of this paper, the earls of Halifax and Egremont, ſecretaries of ſtate, iſſued a general warrant for apprehending the author, printer, and publiſher, of the ſaid libel. Mr. Wilkes was accordingly ſeized and ſent priſoner to the tower. His papers alſo were ſeized at the ſame time. But upon his being brought up to the court of common pleas, he was releaſed, as the court were of opinion that the privilege of parliament extended to libels. After fighting a duel with Mr. Martin, late ſecretary to the treaſury, whoſe character he had attacked in his writings, Mr. Wilkes thought proper to retire to France. During his abſence, he was expelled the houſe of commons, for another libel, which they condemned as blaſphemous; and not appearing to the indictments preferred againſt him, he was outlawed. In 1768, he returned home, when the ſentence of outlawry was reverſed by lord Mansfield in the court of king's-bench, and he ſubmitted to the ſentence of a

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fine and impriſonment pronounced againſt him by the ſame court for the blaſphemous libel. Some time after, however, he recovered 4,000l. damages for his impriſonment in the tower upon an illegal warrant.

The moſt intereſting event to this country, during the year 1765, was the paſſing the American ſtamp act, which firſt kindled the ſparks of that conflagration, which afterwards enveloped a great part of Europe, as well as North America, in its flames.

The ſpirit of party was now become ſo general and violent, that it was productive of frequent changes, not only in public men, but in public meaſures and councils. In the month of July, Mr. Greville, and his friends being diſmiſſed, a new adminiſtration was formed, called the *Rockingham adminiſtration*, the marquis being appointed firſt lord of the treaſury. The chief buſineſs of this miniſtry was to undo all that their predeceſſors had done; particularly by repealing the cyder and ſtamp acts.

In 1766, another entire change of adminiſtration took place. The duke of Grafton ſucceeded the marquis of Rockingham, as firſt lord of the treaſury; ſeveral other alterations were made in the inferior departments of ſtate; and the cuſtody of the privy-ſeal was beſtowed on Mr. Pitt, now created earl of Chatham, upon whoſe recommendation, it is ſaid, this miniſtry was formed. The patriotic opinion which had been entertained of the late miniſtry, was much increaſed by the diſintereſtedneſs they had ſhewn upon quitting their offices; as they retired without ſecuring to themſelves or friends a place, penſion, or reverſion. On the other hand, the preſent procedure of the earl of Chatham tended to leſſen that popularity of which he had before enjoyed ſo boundleſs a ſhare.

About this time peace was eſtabliſhed in the Eaſt Indies by lord Clive, who returned the following year. A new enemy, however, ſoon ſtarted up. Hyder Ally, who, from a common ſoldier had become a prince of a large tract of territory on the Malabar coaſt, in confederacy with the viceroy of Decan, declared war againſt

againſt the Engliſh. The council of Madras ſent a body of troops under colonel Smith, who obtained a complete victory over them, when the viceroy immediately made peace with the Engliſh. Hyder Ally took refuge among the mountains, from whence he made frequent incurſions. But peace was at laſt propoſed to him, and accepted.

The flame which had been for ſome time kindling between Great Britain and her American colonies, now began to blaze out. Some duties were laid, during the laſt ſeſſion of parliament, on paper, glaſs, and a few other articles, to be paid upon their importation into America from England. This was conſidered as a freſh invaſion of their chartered rights. The general aſſembly came to a reſolution to diſcontinue the uſe of all Britiſh manufactures, till theſe duties were repealed. In this reſpect they were ſoon gratified. But the duty on tea, which had been laid on in order to favour the Eaſt India company, when they made their new agreement with government, ſtill continued, and was the means of cauſing greater diſturbances than ever in America. The breach between that country and Great Britain grew wider every day. At Boſton, the military having fired upon a mob, for a riot at the cuſtom-houſe, ſeveral were killed; and captain Preſton, being tried for the murder, was acquitted by the jury, compoſed of houſekeepers in the town.

A. D. 1768.

A panic ſeems to have ſeized the miniſtry on this occaſion, and a great number of reſignations took place.

To the aſtoniſhment of the whole nation, among theſe was that of the duke of Grafton, who reſigned his office of firſt lord of the treaſury, and was ſucceeded by lord North, already chancellor of the exchequer.

In 1772, a myſterious and bloody ſcene was exhibited in Denmark, which ſtill continues in its original darkneſs and obſcurity. The following are ſome of the facts attending it. The whole ſovereign power being engroſſed by the king's mother-in-law, the queen dowager, and his half-brother, prince Frederick, the

counts

counts Struenſee and Brandt, his majeſty's two principle favourites, were tried for high treaſon, condemned, and beheaded. The queen-conſort, Matilda, ſiſter to his Britannic majeſty, very narrowly eſcaped with her life. She was confined for ſome time, and afterwards obliged to leave the kingdom; upon which ſhe retired to the caſtle of Zell, in the electorate of Hanover, where ſhe kept a melancholy court, and died in May, 1775, after a few days illneſs, in the 23d year of her age.

Diſorders and diſcontents continued to prevail, and every day to increaſe, in all the American colonies. The Americans who formed the blockade of Boſton, having thought proper to A. D. 1774. erect works on an eminence called Bunker's-hill, which commanded the town and harbour, general Gage ſent a body of troops, conſiſting of 2000 men, under the command of major-general Howe, and brigadier-general Pigot to diſlodge them. After a moſt obſtinate and bloody conflict, in which the loſs of the king's troops amounted to upwards of 1000 men, the Americans were driven from their poſt, and the works deſtroyed. During the action, Charles-town, a place adjacent, and which is ſeparated from Boſton by the river Charles, was ſet on fire, and burnt to the ground. Whether this was effected by carcaſſes thrown from the ſhips, or by the troops, is uncertain. As ſoon as the news of the battle of Bunker's-hill reached the congreſs, they appointed George Waſhington, eſq. a gentleman of affluent fortune in Virginia, and who had acquired conſiderable military experience in the command of different bodies of the provincials, during the laſt war, to be general and commander in chief of all the American forces.

In 1776, Boſton was bombarded and evacuated, when general Waſhington took poſſeſſion of it, and general Howe removed his troops to Halifax. In July, a fruitleſs attack was made upon Charles-town, in which the Engliſh ſuffered conſiderably. About this time, general Howe landed, and drove the Americans out

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of Long island, who abandoned New York to the British forces. Offers of reconciliation were now made by Howe, and rejected. Sir Peter Parker and general Clinton took Rhode Island, and the English also made some incursions into the Jerseys. General Washington soon after surprised and took prisoners above 900 of the Hessian troops, in our service, with several stands of arms.

In 1777, there were two actions between the generals Howe and Washington, and Philadelphia surrendered to the king's troops. A plan was now formed for invading the revolted colonies by way of Canada, and general Burgoyne undertook the expedition; but after many difficulties, and some desperate actions, this army was obliged to surrender themselves prisoners of war to Gates and Arnold. Our expedition up the north river was more successful, under Clinton and Vaughan; the former of whom, soon after, succeeded general Howe as commander in chief, and, after evacuating Philadelphia, retreated with his army to New York.

In 1778, the French entered into an alliance with the Thirteen United Colonies; and as affairs wore so gloomy an aspect, the earl of Carlisle, Mr. Eden, and governor Johnson, were sent as commissioners to treat of peace; but the hour was past, and the terms were rejected with disdain. The war was carried on with mutual animosity, and the whole of Georgia was reduced by the British forces. Hostilities next commenced with France; and the English admiral Keppel engaged the French fleet under count D'Orvilliers. Not a ship was taken on either side; and, upon some censure being passed on vice-admiral sir Hugh Palliser's conduct, he applied to Keppel for redress, which was denied. He then exhibited articles of accusation against Keppel, who was tried, and honourably acquitted; and there the farce ended.

In 1780, sir George Rodney, with a large fleet, captured five Spanish ships of the line, one of which was lost by being driven on shore, and another was blown

blown up. In America, general Clinton took poſſeſſion of Charles-town, while colonel Tarleton acquired fame, by his conduct in ſeveral ſkirmiſhes. The execution of major André, adjutant-general to the Britiſh forces, who was taken in diſguiſe within the American lines, and condemned as a ſpy, will always be remembered with regret.

In 1781, a deſperate engagement happened off the Dogger-bank, between a ſquadron of Engliſh ſhips, under admiral Hyde Parker, and an equal number of Dutch ſhips, commanded by admiral Zoutman. The action was maintained for three hours and forty minutes, with equal gallantry on both ſides; but to whom the victory belonged ſeems to remain doubtful. The Dutch ſhips bore away for the Texel, with their convoy, and the Engliſh ſhips were too much diſabled to follow them.

Not long after, earl Cornwallis gained a victory over general Green, near Guildford, in North Carolina. The day, however, was now haſtily arriving, in which Britain was to give up all hopes of ever conquering America; for ſoon after, De Graſſe reached the Cheſapeak, and, before admiral Graves could attack him, general Waſhington, with his aſſiſtance, ſurrounded earl Cornwallis's army, who were obliged to ſurrender priſoners of war to the combined forces of France and America.

The conſtant majorities in favour of lord North now began to diminiſh, and the adminiſtration loſt ground upon every important queſtion; till, on the 8th of March, lord John Cavendiſh having moved ſeveral reſolutions as accuſations of the miniſtry, and theſe being rejected on a diviſion, but by a very ſmall majority, lord North ſignified his intention of reſigning; and, on the 20th, declared he was no longer miniſter. A complete and radical change took place in adminiſtration. The marquis of Rockingham was appointed firſt lord of the treaſury, in the room of lord North; lord John Cavendiſh, chancellor of the exchequer; the earl of Shelburne and Mr. Fox, A. D. 1782.

principal

principal ſecretaries of ſtate; Mr. Burke, pay-maſter of the forces; lord Camden, preſident of the council; the duke of Richmond, maſter of the ordnance; and admiral Keppel, firſt lord of the admiralty. Such meaſures being immediately taken, as tended to effectuate a general peace, negociations were opened for that purpoſe at Paris.

But the death of the marquis of Rockingham, which happened on the 1ſt of July following, threw the cabinet into confuſion. He was ſucceeded by the earl of Shelburne, whoſe appointment gave ſo much offence to ſome of his colleagues, that Mr. Fox, lord John Cavendiſh, Mr. Burke, and two or three more, immediately reſigned their places. Mr. T. Townſend was made ſecretary of ſtate, in the room of Mr. Fox; and Mr. William Pitt, ſon to the late earl of Chatham, who, though at a very early time of life, had already greatly diſtinguiſhed himſelf in parliament, was prevailed upon, at this very critical period, to accept the office of chancellor of the exchequer, in the room of lord John Cavendiſh.

The grand work of peace was, however, carried on by the preſent miniſtry; and a proviſional treaty with America ſigned at Paris, by which the colonies were acknowledged to be "free, ſovereign, and independent ſtates." Such was the end of the conteſt between Great Britain and the American colonies; a conteſt in which the former had expended upwards of one hundred millions of money, together with many thouſand valuable lives, and had obtained nothing in return but diſgrace and loſs of territory.

Gibraltar, which had long been inveſted by the Spaniards, ſtill continued to be vigorouſly beſieged; and the reputation of the Britiſh arms was there nobly ſuſtained by general Elliot. That gallant governor had frequently permitted the beſieged, without interruption, nearly to bring their works to perfection, and then almoſt totally demoliſhed them. The Spaniards, therefore, on the 13th of September, made a very formidable attack upon the fortreſs, with ten large bat-

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tering ships, from 600 to 1400 tons burden, under the command of admiral Moreno. A heavy cannonading was kept up on both sides, till at length the ships were set on fire by red-hot balls from the bastions, and then totally destroyed by the gun-boats, under the conduct of captain Roger Curtis.

Among the losses sustained by Great Britain, during this year, were those of the island of Minorca, and the province of West Florida. The British navy also suffered greatly through various accidents. The Ville de Paris, le Glorieux, le Hector, and the Ramilies, all foundered at sea, in their return from the West Indies; and the Royal George, of 100 guns, was overset and sunk, through mismanagement, at Spithead. Admiral Kempenfelt, a very brave and meritorious officer, and upwards of 700 persons, perished in her.

On the 20th of January, 1783, the preliminary articles of peace between Great Britain, France, and Spain, were signed at Versailles by the respective ministers of those courts. But the general pacification was not completed during the administration of lord Shelburne. For when the terms of peace underwent a scrutiny in the house of commons, they were so severely censured, that the ministry, of which that nobleman was the head, found themselves obliged to give way to the superior parliamentary interest of Mr. Fox and lord North, who had by this time formed that famous coalition, which has been so much the subject of wonder and reprobation. The duke of Portland was promoted to be first lord of the treasury; lord North and Mr. Fox were appointed secretaries of state; lord John Cavendish was made chancellor of the exchequer; lord Keppel, first lord of the admiralty; lord Stormont, president of the council; and the earl of Carlisle, keeper of the privy seal.

About this period, intelligence was received from the East Indies, that a peace had been concluded with the Mahrattas; an event which promised an interval of stability to our affairs in the East. This favourable circumstance was soon followed by the death of Hyder

Ali.

Ally, whoſe enterpriſing ſpirit, and vigour of mind, were eminent; and who was animated againſt the Engliſh with an hoſtility the moſt rooted and incurable.

The terms of the peace being finally adjuſted and eſtabliſhed, the definitive treaties between all the contending powers, Great Britain, France, Spain, America, and Holland, were ſigned on the 3d of September. They were ſoon after ratified; and on the 6th of October, peace was proclaimed with the uſual ſolemnities in the cities of London and Weſtminſter. At the concluſion of the war, the national debt amounted to the enormous ſum of two hundred and forty millions ſterling: and the annual intereſt of the ſame to nine millions.

As ſoon as peace was concluded, the next object that engaged the attention of the miniſtry, was the ſtate of our affairs in India. Mr. Fox brought in a bill, propoſing no leſs than to take from the directors and proprietors of the Eaſt India company, the entire management of their territorial and commercial affairs, and obliging them to deliver up their books of accounts, and the whole of their property, to certain commiſſioners therein appointed. In its progreſs through the houſe of commons, the company petitioned againſt the bill, and were heard by their counſel, who urged, that it was an invaſion of private property, as well as a violation of public faith, and was therefore diſhonourable, impolitic, and unjuſt. But the moſt formidable antagoniſt it met with in that houſe, was Mr. Pitt, who, with his uſual force of argument, objected to it, as being an annihilation of the charter of the company, and calculated to eſtabliſh a new and unconſtitutional influence. Notwithſtanding this, through the intereſt of the coaleſced parties, it was carried in the houſe of commons.

In the houſe of lords, however, the bill was rejected by a majority of nineteen. The king immediately determined upon the removal of the miniſtry, and the ſeals were demanded of the ſecretaries of ſtate at twelve o'clock at night. The places of firſt lord of the treaſury

ſury and chancellor of the exchequer were conferred on Mr. William Pitt; lord Gower was appointed preſident of the council; the duke of Rutland, keeper of the privy ſeal; and the marquis of Carmarthen and lord Sydney, ſecretaries of ſtate; the great ſeal, which had been held in commiſſion, was reſtored to lord Thurlow.

Early in 1784, his majeſty thought proper to diſſolve the parliament. Never was any deciſion more full and explicit than that which was given by the people of England, at the preſent general election, in favour of the popularity of Mr. Pitt, who, upon the opening of the new parliament, framed a bill for the regulation of the Eaſt India company, in oppoſition to that of Mr. Fox, lately rejected. By this bill they were made ſubject to a board of controul, conſiſting of five commiſſioners appointed by the king.

In the Eaſt Indies, the campaign of 1783 turned out ſucceſsful; which was chiefly owing to the death of the celebrated Hyder Ally. But the company ſoon after found a formidable enemy in his ſucceſſor, Tippoo Saib, a perſon whoſe character was equally great and ſplendid. This chief defeated the Britiſh army, under general Matthews, in a bloody and deciſive engagement, ſoon after the command devolved upon him; he likewiſe gained many other advantages. A treaty, however, was at length agreed upon between him and the company.

The year 1785 was alſo a period of political contention. Mr. Pitt preſented to the houſe a ſtring of propoſitions, tending to ſettle the commerce of England and Ireland, on a mutual and equitable footing. They met with great oppoſition in both houſes; and, though they with difficulty paſſed, they were ſo increaſed and mutilated, as to retain hardly any thing of their original form. On being ſent over to Ireland, they met with great oppoſition in that kingdom, and were ſoon thrown out with contempt, both countries conſidering them as deſtructive to their own intereſt.

In

In 1786, a bill was brought into parliament by Mr. Pitt, to form a ſinking fund of one million annually, to be veſted in commiſſioners, and to be applied to the reduction of the national debt; which paſſed both houſes, and received the royal aſſent.

Much about the ſame time, a treaty of commerce and navigation between his Britannic majeſty, and the moſt Chriſtian king was ſigned at Verſailles, by Mr. Eden, and the count de Vergennes. By this treaty, which was of a new and moſt extenſive nature, an intercourſe was eſtabliſhed between France and Great Britain, on the baſis of reciprocal advantages. Duties were lowered, and privileges and rights granted to the manufacturing and trading ſubjects of each kingdom, which had hitherto never been known between them.

In 1787, Mr. Beaufoy, member for Great Yarmouth, made a motion, at the requeſt of the diſſenting congregations in and about London, for taking into conſideration the repeal of the corporation and teſt acts; which, after a long debate, paſſed in the negative, 100 ayes, to 178 noes.

In 1788, the king was ſeized with a violent diſorder, and continued ill a long time with very little hopes of recovery. In December, the parliament met, when both houſes turned their thoughts towards the appointment of a regent, during his majeſty's incapacity to aſſume the third branch of the legiſlature, which was now extinct. Upon this ſubject, a warm debate took place in the houſe of commons, wherein it was urged by Mr. Fox, and the other adherents to the cauſe of the prince of Wales, that his royal highneſs has as clear and expreſs a right to exerciſe the ſovereign power, during the illneſs and incapacity of his majeſty, as if his royal parent had undergone a natural deceaſe. On the other ſide, it was aſſerted, that in caſe of the interruption of the perſonal exerciſe of the royal authority, it belonged to the other branches of the legiſlature, to provide for the temporary exerciſe of the royal authority in ſuch a manner as they ſhould think requiſite; and that, *unleſs by their deciſion*, the prince of Wales

Wales had no right, ſtrictly ſpeaking, to aſſume the government.

During the courſe of this debate, Mr. Pitt, the chancellor of exchequer, made uſe of the following emphatic expreſſions. He maintained, that it would appear from every precedent, and from every page of our hiſtory, that to aſſert ſuch a right in the prince of Wales, or any one elſe, *independent of the deciſion* of the two houſes of parliament, was little leſs than *treaſon to the conſtitution of the country;* from which he drew this concluſion, *that the prince of Wales had no more right to exerciſe the powers of government, than any other perſon in theſe realms.*

On the 16th of January, 1789, a reſolution was carried, but not without great oppoſition, "That his royal highneſs the prince of Wales ſhould be empowered to exerciſe and adminiſter the royal authority, according to the laws and conſtitution of Great Britain, in the name, and on behalf of his majeſty, under the ſtyle and title of *regent* of the kingdom; and to uſe, execute, and perform all authorities, prerogatives, acts of government, and adminiſtration of the ſame, *ſubject to ſuch limitations and exceptions as ſhall be provided.*"

On the 18th of February, however, the report given by the phyſicians was, "that his majeſty continued to advance in his recovery." Upon the receipt of this information, which ſeemed to diffuſe a general joy through every rank, as ſoon as the houſe of lords met on the following day, the lord chancellor acquainted the houſe, that ſince his majeſty's phyſicians had pronounced him to be in a ſtate of convaleſcence, the accounts of his majeſty's progreſſive improvement had increaſed from day to day; and the intelligence was that day ſo favourable, that he conceived every noble lord would agree with him in acknowledging, that it would be indecent and improper to go on with the proceedings in which they were engaged, under the preſent circumſtances, when the principle of the bill might poſſibly be entirely done away. The houſe was accordingly adjourned from time to time, till the 10th of

March, when a commiſſion, ſigned by the king's own hand, was iſſued to open the ſeſſion of parliament. A ſpeech was thereupon made in his name by the lord chancellor; and addreſſes being, in return, voted both to his majeſty and the queen, the regency bill was upon motion diſcharged.

The 23d of May being appointed by royal proclamation as a day of general thankſgiving, on account of his majeſty's recovery, deeply impreſſed with the ſignal mercy he had received, the king went publicly to St. Paul's, accompanied by the queen, the royal family, both houſes of parliament, the great officers of ſtate, and the whole corporation of London, in order to return thanks to God. The univerſal joy and loyalty which pervaded the cities of London and Weſtminſter, and the grandeur of the ſpectacle, exhibited on this joyful occaſion, are ſcarcely to be deſcribed or conceived. The whole was conducted with the greateſt order and regularity, and an uncommon decorum was obſerved in the behaviour of the lower ranks.

CHAP. I. concluded.

IN the month of June, 1789, one of the moſt unexpected revolutions took place in France, that ever happened in the political hemiſphere of Europe, in which the intereſt and commerce of England are materially concerned. On that day, the French king was diveſted of all his abſolute authority, and reduced to one of the moſt limited monarchs in Europe. The Baſtile, that den of ſlavery and cruelty, was ſo effectually demoliſhed by the populace, as literally not to leave one ſtone upon another. All the unhappy ſtate priſoners, many of whom had languiſhed for years in this execrable abode, were now ſet at liberty. Among the number was lord Masarine, an Iriſh nobleman, who had been confined there for debt near thirty years. The national aſſembly, who were choſen by the people, took from the king the power of making war and peace,

peace, and abolished all titles of peerages, it being their opinion, that no distinctions should be known, but such as arise from virtue, genius, and merit.

On the 14th of July, a solemn festival was held at Paris, when the French monarch made a formal surrender of that power, which is dangerous in the hands of any single man. From this day, he was no longer to be considered as the absolute tyrant, but as the father and servant of his people. On the above day, in the field of Mars, he took a solemn oath to abide by the new constitution, as prescribed by a degree of the national assembly. But notwithstanding the solemn oath he had taken, the king soon afterwards endeavoured to make his escape to the German dominions, when he was stopped on the borders of Flanders, brought back to Paris, and closely guarded in one of the royal palaces. In the mean time, the national assembly drew up a new code of laws, presented them to the king, who signed them, and for a time allayed the tumults in that kingdom. A. D. 1790.

In 1791, a dangerous riot took place at Birmingham. A public meeting having been announced to commemorate the anniversary of the French revolution, at the hotel, in Temple Row, a number of persons repaired thither for that purpose; at last a mob assembling in the evening, destroyed all the windows of the building, demolished Dr. Priestley's chapel, his house at Fair Hill, and several other houses. The doctor's grand philosophical apparatus, his extensive and valuable library, together with his manuscripts and furniture, were all committed to the flames. The riots continued five or six days, during which time, the mob, being reinforced by many thousands from the neighbouring country, razed to the ground, and reduced to ashes a great number of fine edifices.

In 1792, lord Cornwallis made an advantageous peace with Tippoo Saib in the East Indies, and received the two sons of the tyrant, as hostages. Leopold, emperor of Germany, died this year; and the king of Sweden was shot at a masquerade, by one of his

own ſubjects. On the 10th of Auguſt there was a dreadful engagement at the Thuilleries. The Swiſs guards were vanquiſhed and maſſacred, while the king and royal family were compelled to take refuge in the national aſſembly. On the 2d of September, a terrible inſurrection happened at Paris, when the priſons were forced open, and all the ſtate priſoners and confined prieſts, maſſacred.

The French convention having decreed the abolition of royalty, and the formation of a republic, reſolved that their king, Lewis XVI. ſhould be tried before them. The trial accordingly took place, and this tribunal, which abſurdly exerciſed at once the incompatible characters of accuſers, proſecutors and judges, condemned the unfortunate monarch, who was publicly beheaded on the 21ſt of January, 1793.

On the 1ſt of February, the French declared war againſt England and Holland. In the courſe of the ſummer, Valenciennes ſurrendered to the duke of York, and Toulon to lord Hood; but the latter place was afterwards evacuated.

About this time Paris preſented a ſcene of horrors, unparalleled in the hiſtory of civilized nations. Numerous executions took place, not only of individuals, but whole families ſuſpected of diſaffection to the ruling power, which was now chiefly in the hands of Maximilian Robeſpierre, a man riſen from obſcurity, and known only for his crimes. Among the illuſtrious victims of his cruelty was the helpleſs and unoffending queen, who periſhed by the guillotine, on the 16th of October, in the 38th year of her age. Her ſufferings had been previouſly aggravated by the mockery of a trial.

On the 1ſt of June, 1794, lord Howe defeated the French grand fleet, took ſix ſail of the line, and ſunk three. The Corſicans, ſoon after, acknowledged George III. as king of Corſica, and accepted of a new conſtitution. Towards the end of July, Robeſpierre and his party were overthrown at Paris, and himſelf with twenty others guillotined.

In 1795, Holland was over-run by the French, when the ſtadtholder and his family fled for refuge to this country, and had apartments aſſigned to them in Hampton-court palace.

The trial of Warren Haſtings, eſq. at the bar of the houſe of lords, which commenced in 1788, now cloſed, the court having ſat 149 days, with intervals of long adjournments. Mr. Haſtings was acquitted.

In 1796, admiral Elphinſtone captured a large Dutch fleet under admiral Lucas, at the Cape of Good Hope, without firing a gun, when the Dutch ſpice iſlands ſurrendered to the Engliſh.

On the 29th of December, lord Malmſbury, who had been ſent to negociate a peace with France, arrived in London, having been compelled to quit Paris in twenty-four hours.

In 1797, admiral ſir John Jervis, with fifteen ſail, defeated the Spaniſh fleet, conſiſting of twenty-ſeven ſail of the line, and nine frigates, off Cape St. Vincent's, and took four ſhips of the line. He was, in conſequence, created earl St. Vincent.

On the 12th of May, an alarming mutiny broke out on board the fleet at Sheerneſs. The mutineers blocked up the entrance of the Thames, hoiſted bloody flags, and compelled all the ſhips of war in the Medway and at the Nore to join the flag of revolt. The mutiny ſpread into the ſquadron of admiral Duncan, moſt of whoſe ſhips left him and joined the mutineers at the Nore. Several of them were now taken into cuſtody, when Parker, the leader, and ſome of his co-delegates were executed.

On the 11th of October, admiral Duncan defeated the Dutch fleet, and captured their admiral, vice-admiral, and nine ſhips of the line, for which he was created a viſcount.

In 1798, the French entered Rome, and planted the tree of liberty before the capitol. They likewiſe overran Switzerland. On the 7th of July, Bonaparte landed at Alexandria, in Egypt. But on the 1ſt of

Auguſt, lord Nelſon gained a ſignal victory over the French fleet at the mouth of the Nile.

In 1799, the queſtion of the union of Great Britain and Ireland was carried in both the Iriſh houſes, viz. in the lords by a majority of thirty-two, and in the commons by a majority of two. In the courſe of the following year it was agreed to in Britain.

In September, 14,000 troops embarked at Deal, for Holland, as did alſo the duke of York, prince William of Glouceſter, and lord Chatham. The expedition, however, was unſucceſsful.

In 1800, the Ruſſian ambaſſador left this country under the paſſport granted for a courier. An embargo on Engliſh ſhips ſoon after took place at Cronſtadt, when 130 veſſels were ſeized. In reference to this extraordinary conduct, the Peterſburgh court gazette publiſhed the following order: "Whereas we have learned that the iſland of Malta, lately in the poſſeſſion of the French, has been ſurrendered to the Engliſh troops, but as it is yet uncertain whether the agreement entered into on the 30th of December, 1798, will be fulfilled, according to which this iſland, after its capture, is to be reſtored to the order of St. John of Jeruſalem, of which his majeſty, the emperor of all the Ruſſias, is grand maſter, his imperial majeſty, being determined to defend his rights, has been pleaſed to command that an embargo ſhall be laid on all Engliſh ſhips in the ports of his empire, till the above-mentioned convention ſhall be fulfilled."

Much about the ſame time an attempt was made on the life of Bonaparte, as he was going to the opera, by an exploſion of gunpowder, when ſome of the conſpirators were put to death, and 120 baniſhed.

CHAP.

CHAP. II.

ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY. A. D. 1688—1803.

DURING the reign of queen Anne, a complaint was made to the houſe of commons of two ſermons preached and publiſhed by Dr. Sacheverel, rector of St. Saviour's, Southwark, as containing poſitions contrary to the principles of the revolution, to the preſent government, and to the proteſtant ſucceſſion. Sacheverel was a clergyman, of narrow intellects, and an over-heated imagination. He had acquired ſome popularity among thoſe who diſtinguiſhed themſelves by the name of high churchmen, and took all occaſions to vent his animoſity againſt the diſſenters. The houſe having conſidered of the complaint, ordered the doctor to be taken into cuſtody, and impeached him at the bar of the houſe of lords. Upon this occaſion, the tories were not idle. They boldly affirmed that the whigs, who, they ſaid, had formed a deſign to pull down the church, only intended by the preſent proſecution to try their ſtrength before they would proceed openly to the execution of their project, and the doctor was conſequently conſidered as the champion of the high party. The eyes of the whole kingdom were turned upon this extraordinary trial. It laſted three weeks, during which all other buſineſs was ſuſpended; and the queen herſelf was every day preſent, though in quality of a private ſpectator. A vaſt multitude conſtantly attended him to and from Weſtminſter-hall, ſtriving to kiſs his hand, and praying for his deliverance, as if he had been a martyr and confeſſor. The queen's ſedan was beſet by the populace, exclaiming, "God bleſs your majeſty and the church. We hope your majeſty is for Dr. Sacheverel." The mob deſtroyed ſeveral meeting houſes, and plundered the dwelling houſes of many eminent diſſenters. After obſtinate diſputes, and much virulent altercation,

Sacheverel was found guilty. Several peers, however, entered a proteſt againſt the deciſion, which was, that he ſhould be prohibited from preaching for three years, and his two ſermons be burnt by the hands of the common hangman. The lenity of the ſentence was in a great meaſure owing to the dread of popular reſentment. The doctor's friends conſidered it as a victory obtained over the whig faction, and they celebrated their triumph with bonfires and illuminations.

In 1780, in conſequence of ſome indulgencies lately granted by the parliament to Roman Catholics, a great concourſe of people, amounting, it is ſuppoſed, to 60,000, wearing blue cockades, aſſembled in St. George's fields, in order to petition the two houſes againſt theſe marks of lenity. From thence they proceeded by different routs, in a quiet and orderly manner, to Palace-yard, where, being augmented by a great number of deſperadoes, and evil deſigning perſons, who put cockades in their hats, and cried, "No popery," with an intent to rob and commit outrages, under the ſanction of the aſſociations, a riot enſued. A lawleſs mob, for ſeveral days, paraded the ſtreets, pulling down houſes, ſetting open priſons, releaſing the priſoners, burning houſes, ſtealing the effects, and extorting money from the inhabitants; till the military put a ſtop to their outrages, by firing upon them, and taking great numbers into cuſtody. The ringleaders were afterwards tried, condemned, and hanged upon the ſeveral ſpots where they had committed their depredations. The moſt ſingular of theſe tranſactions, was their ſetting fire to the priſons of the fleet, the king's bench, and Newgate; and the moſt alarming of their attempts was, that which they made on the bank of England, with an avowed deſign to plunder it, and to deſtroy the books. Lord George Gordon was afterwards tried for having collected this aſſembly; but as it appeared that he was actuated merely by religious principles, and had never encouraged the mob to commit, nor even expected they would commit, any outrage, he was acquitted.

Fana-

Fanaticiſm is not yet wholly baniſhed from the earth, and ambition ſtill leſs. This inſurrection is a proof, that it is eaſy to ſtir up the people with the cry, *Religion is in danger.* Who knows what the conſequence of ſuch a tumult might have been, if, inſtead of a lord George Gordon, it had been headed by another Cromwell!

This obſervation is corroborated by the late riots of Birmingham, when the cry, *Great is Diana of the Epheſians*, excited the mob to burn the houſes of inoffenſive citizens, deſtroy their meeting-houſes, and offer violence to their perſons.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Scotland was formerly of a rigid nature, and partook of all the auſterities of Calviniſm, and of too much of the intolerance of popery. At preſent it is mild and gentle; and the ſermons, and other theological writings, of many of the modern Scottiſh divines, are equally diſtinguiſhed by good ſenſe and moderation. It is to be wiſhed, however, that this moderation was not too often interrupted by the fanaticiſm not only of lay ſeceders, but of regular miniſters.

Scotland, during the time of epiſcopacy, contained two archbiſhopricks, St. Andrew's and Glaſgow; and twelve biſhopricks, namely, Edinburgh, Dunkeld, Aberdeen, Murray, Brechin, Dumblain, Roſs, Caithneſs, Orkney, Gallaway, Argyle, and the Iſles.

CHAP. III.

GOVERNMENT. A. D. 1688—1803.

IN the reign of William, the perpetual oppoſition between the whigs and tories, and the neceſſity of large ſupplies to ſupport the war on the continent, gave riſe to two great and growing evils, intimately connected with each other; national debt, and the corruption of the houſe of commons. At the ſame time that the king, by a pernicious funding ſyſtem, was loading the ſtate with immenſe ſums, borrowed to

ntain his continental connections, he was liberal of public money to his ſervants at home; and em-ed it with little ceremony, to bring over his ene-s, or to procure a majority in parliament.

n order to put a ſtop to this corruption, ſo far as fected the repreſentatives of the people, a bill was ught in for triennial parliaments; and William id himſelf under the neceſſity of paſſing it, or of ng the vote of ſupply, with which it was made to hand in hand. He was beſides afraid to exert the uence of the crown, in defeating a bill of ſo much ſequence to the nation; more eſpecially as the en, whoſe death he was ſenſible would weaken his iority, was then indiſpoſed. A ſimilar bill was orted from Charles I. but repealed, ſoon after the oration, in compliment to Charles II. To this rudent compliance may be aſcribed the principal orders during that and the ſubſequent reign. A ſe of commons, elected every three years, would e formed ſuch a ſtrong bulwark to liberty, as muſt e baffled and diſcouraged all the attacks of arbitrary ver. The more honeſt and independent part of the mmunity, therefore, zealouſly promoted the preſent ; which, while it continued in force, certainly tributed to ſtem the tide of corruption, and to pro-e a more fair repreſentation of the people.

The ſpeedy and fortunate ſuppreſſion of that rebel-n, in 1715, as muſt ever be the caſe in all free go-nments, increaſed the influence of the crown. The g miniſtry, no longer under any apprehenſions from encroachments of arbitrary power, and willing ut-y to cruſh their political enemies, without foreſee-the conſequences as to public liberty, framed a for repealing the triennial act, lately thought eſ-ial, by their own party, to the freedom of the En-n conſtitution, and for *extending* the *duration* of par-ments to the term of *ſeven years*. This bill, though mly oppoſed by the tories, (who now, in contra-on to their principles, took the popular ſide of all ſions,) and by many independent and unprejudiced

members of both houſes, was carried by a great majority; and George I. by the uniform ſupport of the whigs, who in their love of power forgot their former maxims, found himſelf firmly ſeated on the Britiſh throne.

Sir Robert Walpole was conſidered as firſt miniſter of England when George I. died, and ſome difference having happened between him, and the prince of Wales, it was generally thought, upon the acceſſion of the latter to the crown, that ſir Robert would be diſplaced. That might have been the caſe, could another perſon have been found equally capable, as he was, to manage the houſe of commons, and to gratify that predilection for Hanover which George II. inherited from his father. No miniſter ever underſtood better the temper of the people of England, and none, perhaps, ever tried it more. He filled all places of power, truſt, and profit, and almoſt the houſe of commons itſelf, with his own creatures; but peace was his darling object, becauſe he thought that war muſt be fatal to his power. During his long adminiſtration, he never loſt a queſtion that he was in earneſt to carry. The exciſe ſcheme was the firſt meaſure that gave a ſhock to his power, and even that he could have carried, had he not been afraid of the ſpirit of the people. He was ſo far from checking the freedom of debate, that he bore with equanimity the moſt ſcurrilous abuſe that was thrown out to his face. He gave way to one or two proſecutions for libels, in compliance to his friends, who thought themſelves affected by them; but it is certain, that the preſs of England was never more free than during his adminiſtration. And as to his pacific ſyſtem, it undoubtedly more than repaid to the nation all that was required to ſupport it, by the increaſe of her trade and the improvement of her manufactures. With regard to the king's own perſonal concern in public matters, Walpole was rather his miniſter than his favourite; and his majeſty often hinted to him, as Walpole himſelf has been heard to acknowledge, that he was reſponſible for all the meaſures of government.

CHAP. IV.

LITERATURE. A. D. 1688—1803.

THE names of Newton and Locke adorned the reign of William III. and he had a particular eſteem for the latter, as he had alſo for Tillotſon and Burnet, though he was far from being liberal to men of genius. During this reign Locke wrote his *Eſſay on Government*, and Swift, his *Tale of a Tub*. Theſe are two of the moſt excellent proſe compoſitions in our language, whether we conſider the ſtyle or matter. The former is an example of cloſe manly reaſoning, and the latter of the irreſiſtible force of ridicule, when ſupported by wit, humour, and ſatire.

But as William, though a powerful prince, and the prime mover of the political machine of Europe, was regarded in England, by one half of the nation, as only the head of a faction, many of the nobility and gentry kept at a diſtance from court; ſo that the advance of taſte was very inconſiderable, till the reign of queen Anne. Then the ſplendor of heroic actions called off, for a time, the attention of all parties from political diſputes, to contemplate the glory of their country. Then appeared a croud of great men, whoſe characters are well known, and whoſe names are familiar to every ear. Then ſubſiſted in full force that natural connection between the learned and the great, by which the latter never fail to be gainers. Swift, Addiſon, Congreve, Rowe, Steele, Prior, Pope, and other men of genius in that age, not only enjoyed the friendſhip and familiarity of the principal perſons in power, but moſt of them in early life obtained places in ſome of the leſs burthenſome departments of government, which put it in their power to paſs the reſt of their days in eaſe and independence.

Thus raiſed to reſpect, above the neceſſity of writing for bread, and enabled to follow their particular vein, ſeveral

ſeveral of thoſe men of genius united their talents, in furniſhing the public with a daily paper, under the name of the *Spectator;* which, by combating with reaſon and raillery, the faults in compoſition, and the improprieties in behaviour, as well as the reigning vices and follies, had a wonderful effect upon the taſte and manners of the nation. It contributed greatly to poliſh and improve both.

The miniſters of George I. were the patrons of erudition, and ſome of them were no mean proficients themſelves. George II. was himſelf no Mæcenas, yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding in the numbers of learned and ingenious men it produced. The bench of biſhops was never known to be ſo well provided with able prelates, as it was in the early years of his reign; a proof that his nobility and miniſters were judges of literary qualifications. In other departments of erudition, the favour of the public generally ſupplied the coldneſs of the court. After the rebellion in the year 1745, when Mr. Pelham was conſidered as firſt miniſter, this ſcreen between government and literature was in a great meaſure removed, and men of genius began then to taſte the royal bounty.

Since that period, great progreſs has been made in uſeful ſcience and polite learning. Hutcheſon, Hartley, Reid, Johnſon, Hawkeſworth, Kippis, and Paley, have excelled in philoſophy, morality, and biography; Sherlock, Porteus, Watſon, Blair, Campbell, and Gerard, in divinity and belles lettres; Keill, Maclaurin, Fergufon, Walker, Garnet, Nicholſon, and Dinwiddie, in mathematics, aſtronomy, experimental philoſophy, and chemiſtry; Hume, Robertſon, Stuart, and Gibbon, in hiſtory; Fielding, Richardſon, and Sterne, in works of fancy and imagination.

No nation in the world can produce ſo many examples of true eloquence as the Engliſh ſenate; witneſs the fine ſpeeches made by both houſes of parliament, in the reign of Charles I. and thoſe that have been printed ſince the acceſſion of the preſent family.

CHA-

CHAP. V.

ARTS. A. D. 1688—1803.

DURING the courſe of the laſt fifty years, ſocieties, formed for that purpoſe, have much contributed to the improvement of agriculture. For the art of modern gardening, we are indebted to the taſte and genius of Kent. He taught us to *imitate* nature, or more properly ſpeaking *to act upon her plan*, in forming our pleaſure grounds, inſtead of impreſſing upon every natural object the hard ſtamp of art; he taught us, that the perfection of gardening, conſiſts in humouring and adorning, not in conſtraining nature; conſequently, that ſtraight walks, regular parterres, circular and ſquare pieces of water, and trees cut in the ſhape of animals, are utterly inconſiſtent with true taſte. In a word, the whole ſecret of modern gardening conſiſts in making proper uſe of natural ſcenery, wood and water, hill and valley, in conjunction with architecture, ſo as to give beauty and variety to the embelliſhed ground; in judiciouſly veiling and expoſing the ſurrounding country; in contraſting the luxuriant meadow with the barren heath, the verdant ſlope with the rugged ſteep, the ſylvan temple with the ruined tower, the meandering rill with the majeſtic river, and the ſmooth ſurface of the lake, or artificial ſea, with Nature's moſt ſublime object, a view of the boundleſs and ever-agitated ocean.

The printing of linen and cotton cloths has been carried to ſuch perfection, as to ſurpaſs in beauty thoſe of India. Our paper for the lining of rooms has been taught to imitate velvet and ſattin, and even to rival tapeſtry. Much taſte and fancy have been diſplayed in the patterns of our figured ſilks; and our carpets vie with thoſe of Perſia in fabric, equal them in luſtre, and exceed them in harmony of colours.

In

In architecture, Inigo Jones found a ſucceſſor not unworthy of himſelf in ſir Chriſtopher Wren, rendered immortal by the plan of St. Paul's and of St. Stephen's Walbroke. Sir William Chambers, Wyat, Adam, and others, have adorned the capital and every part of the kingdom with edifices in the pureſt taſte of antiquity. They have united elegance with conveniency, and lightneſs with ſolidity.

Dryden, Pope, Thomſon, Gray, Cowper, Goldſmith, Beattie, Hayley, Ogilvie, Ramſay, and Burns, are names celebrated in the annals of *poetry*. Nor have the *Muſes* been courted in vain by Southey, Pratt, Bloomfield, and the amiable author of the *Pleaſures of Hope*.

Hogarth, the firſt eminent Engliſh painter, if we except Scott, who excelled in ſea-pieces, may be ſaid to have formed a new ſchool. But Hogarth knew nothing of the elegance of deſign, the delicacy of drawing, or the magic of colours. Theſe were reſerved for Engliſh painters of a higher order. Copley's earl of Chatham, Weſt's Departure of Regulus, his Pennſylvania Charter, and his Death of Wolfe, to ſay nothing of Reynolds's Ugolino, fill the mind with noble ideas, and awaken the heart to generous emotions. Theſe painters have made public virtue viſible in ſome of its moſt meritorious acts. They have painted as became the ſons of freedom.

Engraving, of which painting may be ſaid to be the prototype, has not made leſs progreſs in England during the preſent century than the parent art. Hiſtorical pictures can only become the property of the rich, and are very liable to be injured by time or accident. Hence the utility of engraving in plates of copper. It multiplies copies at a moderate price. The exhibitions of painting and ſculpture, in Somerſet-Houſe, have been extremely favourable to the arts, by promoting a ſpirit of emulation and exciting a greater attention to works of genius of this kind among the public in general.

Muſic has been much encouraged during the preſent reign. The grand concerts, in the capital, afford ample

ample ſcope to the native compoſers; whilſt the Opera-Houſe, or Italian theatre, calls forth all the talents of foreign maſters, as well as all the powers of execution, both vocal and inſtrumental, by the moſt liberal rewards, for the entertainments of the nobility and gentry.

CHAP. VI.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES. A. D. 1688—1803.

DR. *John Tillotſon*, who died in 1694, was the ſon of a clothier in Yorkſhire, and received his education at Cambridge. Though he was bred among the puritans, he cheerfully conformed at the reſtoration to the church of England, and became curate of Cheſhunt, in Hertfordſhire. In 1663, the ſociety of Lincoln's Inn having made choice of him as their preacher, he was ſoon after appointed dean of Canterbury. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his zeal againſt the progreſs of popery, both in his preaching and from the preſs. His ſermons are remarkable for elegance and perſpicuity. He attended Lord Ruſſel, who was beheaded in 1683, and it is a ſingular fact, that he urged upon him, as alſo did Dr. Burnet, the doctrine of non-reſiſtance, a principle which they both ſaw reaſon to renounce afterwards. At the revolution he was taken into the entire confidence of king William and queen Mary; and when Sancroft was ſuſpended, the metropolitical ſeat was conferred on him, much againſt his inclination. He was violently aſſailed with abuſe by the non-juring party, to all of which he paid little attention, and when ſome of the libellers were taken up, he laboured to get them diſcharged.

Sir *William Temple*, a celebrated ſtateſman, who died in 1700, rendered his country important ſervices as ambaſſador to the United States, particularly in effecting the triple league between England, Holland, and Sweden, in 1668, and in bringing about the marriage of the prince of Orange to lady Mary, daughter of the duke

duke of York. In 1680 he retired from public affairs, and divided his time between his books and his gardens, but he was often conſulted by the perſons who managed the government, and was often viſited by king William. He was a *ſtrict obſerver of truth*, being of opinion, that none who failed once, ought ever to be truſted again. He hated the ſervitude of courts, ſaying he could never be buſy to no purpoſe, as many often are there; and he was always unwilling to enter upon any employment but that of a public miniſter. His converſation was eaſy and pleaſant, eſpecially at table, where he ſaid ill humour ought never to come. He hated diſpute, and avoided expoſtulations, which he uſed to ſay might ſometimes do well between lovers, but never between friends. In his Memoirs and Letters he improved the harmony of the Engliſh language. His Miſcellanies contain a great many curious pieces, which diſplay a conſiderable depth of thought.

John Dryden, eſq. a celebrated Engliſh poet, was born of an eminent family, in Northamptonſhire, in 1631, and educated at Weſtminſter ſchool, under the famous Dr. Buſby, from whence he removed to Trinity college, Cambridge. His reputation as a poet, together with his attachment to the court, procured him the place of poet-laureat on the death of Davenant in 1668. In 1671, he was expoſed to ridicule on the ſtage in the character of Bays, in the duke of Buckingham's comedy of The Rehearſal. In 1679, appeared an eſſay on ſatire, written by the earl of Mulgrave and Mr. Dryden. This piece contained ſome ſevere ſtrokes on the earl of Rocheſter, who employed three fellows to cudgel Dryden as he came out of a coffee-houſe in Govent-garden. Having turned catholic in the reign of James II. he was diſmiſſed from the office of poet-laureat at the revolution, and was ſucceeded by Shadwell, whom he ſeverely ſatirized in his Mac Flecknoe. In 1695, he publiſhed his admirable tranſlation of Virgil. Dryden's parts did not decline with his years. He was an improving writer to the laſt, even to near ſeventy years of age; improving even in fire and imagination,

imagination, as well as in judgment: witneſs his Ode on St. Cæcilia's Day, and his Fables, his lateſt performances. He was equally excellent in verſe and proſe. " I have heard him frequently own with pleaſure," ſays Congreve, " that if he had any talent for Engliſh proſe, it was owing to his having often read the writings of the great archbiſhop Tillotſon. His verſification and his numbers he could learn of nobody; for he firſt poſſeſſed thoſe talents in perfection in our tongue." He died in 1701, and was buried in Weſtminſter abbey, where there is a monument to his memory, erected by John Sheffield, duke of Buckingham. Mr. Dryden married lady Elizabeth Howard, daughter of the earl of Berkſhire, by whom he had three ſons.

Mr. *Thomas Brown*, of facetious memory, who wrote ſatires, and humorous eſſays, was contemporary with Dryden. But his wit being greater than his prudence, brought him frequently within danger of ſtarving. Toward the latter end of Brown's life, however, he was in favour with the earl of Dorſet, who invited him to dinner on a Chriſtmas day, with Dryden, and other gentlemen celebrated for ingenuity; when Brown, to his agreeable ſurprize, found a bank note of 50l. under his plate; and Dryden, at the ſame time, was preſented with another of 100l.

John Locke, eſq. who died in 1704, was the moſt celebrated philoſopher of the age he lived in, and one of the brighteſt ornaments of Engliſh literature. His Eſſays on Human Underſtanding, and his Treatiſe on Education, have rendered his name immortal. Mr. Locke gives the following advice to a gentleman who complained that he had loſt many ideas by their ſlipping out of his mind. " Never go without a pen and ink, or ſomething, to write down all thoughts of moment that come into your mind. I muſt own I have often omitted it, and have often repented of it. The thoughts that come unſought, and, as it were, drop into the mind, are commonly the moſt valuable of any we have, and

and therefore ſhould be ſecured, becauſe they ſeldom return."

Dr. *Gilbert Burnet*, who died in 1715, was a native of Edinburgh, and educated at Aberdeen. At the age of twenty-ſix, he was appointed profeſſor of divinity at Glaſgow, when he married lady Margaret Kennedy, daughter of the earl of Caſſilis. In 1674, he reſigned his profeſſorſhip and ſettled in London, where he was appointed preacher at the Rolls, and lecturer of St. Clement's. About this time commenced his acquaintance with lord Rocheſter, which happily ended in his lordſhip's converſion. In 1668, he ſettled in Holland on the invitation of the prince of Orange, to whom, in his intended deſign of invading England, he was of the moſt important ſervice. In 1689, he was made biſhop of Saliſbury, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his moderation towards diſſenters, and for extending toleration. In 1699, appeared his expoſition of the thirty-nine articles of the church of England, which he had undertaken at the requeſt of archbiſhop Tillotſon. His other publications are the hiſtory of the Reformation, and of his own time, an excellent treatiſe on the paſtoral care, and ſeveral ſermons. His life of the earl of Rocheſter is an admirable performance, which young people ſhould read with attention. It exhibits a picture of the miſeries of vice, painted in the moſt ſtriking and glowing colours. This diſſipated nobleman, in his laſt illneſs, ſent up for all his ſervants, even to his cow-herd, into his bed-chamber, to declare before them the horrors that he felt at the recollection of his paſt life, and hoped that what he then ſuffered from his vicious courſes, would have the effect of preventing them from following his example.

Nicholas Rowe, eſq. an eminent poet, who died in 1718, was bred to the law, but paid more attention to the muſes. His firſt production was, "The ambitious ſtepmother," which meeting with uncommon ſucceſs, was followed by "Tamerlane," "The Fair Penitent," "The Royal Convert," and "Jane Shore." He likewiſe tranſlated Lucan's Pharſalia into Engliſh verſe.

verſe. He held ſeveral places under government, and upon the acceſſion of George I. was made poet-laureat.

The Rev. *John Flamſteed*, a celebrated Engliſh aſtronomer, when very young, diſcovered a great turn for mathematical learning, and ſent to the royal ſociety calculations of ſome remarkable eclipſes of the fixed ſtars by the moon, for which he received the thanks of that learned body. Sir Jonas Moore introduced him to the king, and moſt of the nobility at court, and procured for him the place of aſtronomer royal. In 1675, the foundation ſtone of the royal obſervatory was laid, when Mr. Flamſteed removed with all his apparatus to the queen's houſe at Greenwich, where he reſided till his death in 1719. In the philoſophical tranſactions are many of his papers; but his great work is *Hiſtoria Cœleſtis Britannica*.

Joſeph Addiſon, eſq. who died in 1719, wrote the moſt admired papers in the ſpectator, tatler, guardian, and other publications of the ſame kind. In thoſe papers he has diſcuſſed an infinite variety of ſubjects, both comic and ſerious, and has treated each ſo happily, that one would ſuppoſe he had ſtudied that alone. He enchants us with all the magic of humour, and all the attractive charms of natural and moral beauty. Our language is more indebted to him, not only for words and phraſes, but for images, than to any other writer in proſe. His *Cato* is one of our beſt modern tragedies. In 1716, by his inter-marriage with the counteſs dowager of Warwick and Holland, he became poſſeſſed of Holland houſe, near Kenſington. Here was the ſcene of his laſt moments, and of his affecting interview with his ſon-in-law, the earl of Warwick, to whom he had been tutor, and whoſe licentious manners he had anxiouſly, but in vain, endeavoured to repreſs. As a laſt effort, he ſent for him into the room where he lay at the point of death, hoping that the ſolemnity of the ſcene might make ſome impreſſion upon him. When that young nobleman came, he requeſted to know his commands, and received the memorable anſwer,

anſwer, "See in what peace a chriſtian can die," to which Tickell thus alludes:

"He taught us how to live; and, oh! too high
"A price for knowledge, taught us how to die."

Dr. Johnſon, after drawing his character in a forcible and elegant manner, ſays, "whoever wiſhes to attain an Engliſh ſtyle, familiar but not coarſe, and elegant but not oſtentatious, muſt give his days and nights to the volumes of Addiſon.

Dr. *John Keill*, an eminent Scottiſh mathematician, wrote an Introduction to natural philoſophy, which is an admirable preparation for the ſtudy of Newton's Principia. In 1710 he was choſen Savilian profeſſor of aſtronomy at Oxford, and, the year following, was appointed decypherer to the queen. In 1718 appeared his Introduction to Aſtronomy. He died in 1721.

Matthew Prior, a celebrated poet and ſtateſman, having loſt his father in his childhood, fell into the hands of his uncle, a vintner near Charing-croſs, who ſent him for ſome time to Dr. Buſby, at Weſtminſter; but, not intending to give him any education beyond that of the ſchool, took him, when he was well advanced in literature, to his own houſe. Here he attracted the notice of the earl of Dorſet, by explaining a diſputed paſſage in one of Horace's odes, in which the earl, who frequented the houſe, was a party. By this means he was ſent to the univerſity of Cambridge. At the revolution his patron brought him to court, and procured him the appointment of ſecretary to the plenipotentiaries in the congreſs at the Hague. King William made him a gentleman of the bed-chamber; and in 1697 he was nominated principal ſecretary of ſtate in Ireland. After having occupied theſe, and other high diplomatic poſts and lucrative employments, Mr. Prior died, in 1721, fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. He was often told, that a fellowſhip was too trifling a thing for him to keep, and even improper for his character: but he replied, that, "every thing he had beſides was precarious, and when all failed, that would be bread and cheeſe; on which account he did

did not mean to part with it." As the *laſt piece of human vanity*, he left 500l. for his monument in Weſtminſter-abbey.—Prior has written with great variety, and his variety has made him popular. His poems are very correct. He is never low and ſeldom ſublime. Whatever he obtains above mediocrity ſeems the effort of ſtruggle and of toil. *Alma* has many admirers, and was the only piece among Prior's works of which Pope ſaid that he ſhould wiſh to be the author.

Sir *Chriſtopher Wren* was the moſt eminent architect of his age, as well as an excellent mathematician. In 1660, he was choſen Savilian profeſſor of aſtronomy in Oxford. In 1665, he viſited France, and was ſoon after made ſurveyor-general of his majeſty's works. The conflagration of the city of London gave him many opportunities of employing his genius; for the cathedral of St. Paul's, the parochial churches, and other public ſtructures, which had been deſtroyed by that dreadful calamity, were rebuilt from his deſigns, and under his direction. After being preſident of the royal ſociety, and a member of parliament, he died in 1723.

Sir *Iſaac Newton*, who died in 1727, was the greateſt philoſopher and mathematician that ever appeared in the world. His doctrine of the power of gravitation, and his theory of colours, will immortalize his name. He likewiſe ſtudied and explained the ſcriptures. Dr. Halley, before he applied himſelf to this ſtudy, was once ſpeaking rather freely on the ſubject of revelation, in company with this great man, who pointedly ſaid to him, "I am always glad to hear you, ſir, when you ſpeak about aſtronomy, or other parts of mathematics, becauſe that is a ſubject which you have ſtudied, and well underſtand; but you ſhould not talk of chriſtianity, for you have *not* ſtudied it; *I have*, and am certain you know nothing of the matter."

Dr. *Samuel Clarke*, rector of St. James's, Weſtminſter, in the opinion of Dr. Johnſon, was the moſt complete literary character that England ever produced. Divinity and mathematics, experimental philoſophy and

and classical learning, metaphysics and critical skill were united in him. He died in 1729.

Sir *Richard Steele*, a writer of great celebrity, who died in 1729, in concert with Swift, Addison, and others, published the Tatler, Spectator, and Guardian. He was a ready composer, well versed in polite literature, and of an exceeding lively genius, but not equal in any respect to his friend Addison.

William Congreve, esq. a celebrated poet, was bred to the law; but finding no charms in that profession, he turned his mind to polite literature, particularly to dramatic composition, and wrote a comedy, called "The Old Bachelor;" of which Dryden, to whom he was recommended, said, "that he never saw such a first play in his life." This, and other comedies, with the tradegy of the Mourning Bride, procured him the patronage of lord Halifax, who gave him some lucrative employments under government. His honours were still far greater than his profits. Every writer mentioned him with respect; and, among other testimonies to his merit, Steele made him the patron of his Miscellany, and Pope inscribed to him his translation of the Iliad. But he treated the muses with ingratitude; for, having long conversed familiarly with the great, he wished to be considered rather as a man of fashion than of wit; and, when he received a visit from Voltaire, disgusted him by the despicable foppery of desiring to be considered not as an author, but a gentleman; to which the Frenchman replied, "that, if he had been only a gentleman, he should not have come to visit him." He died in 1729.

John Gay, esq. who died in 1732, is well known as the author of beautiful *fables*, which will be read and admired so long as any taste for that kind of writing shall exist. His *Beggar's Opera* had a run unparalleled in the history of the stage, being acted in London sixty-three days without interruption. Of this performance, when it was printed, the reception was different, according to the different opinions of its readers. Swift commended it for the excellence of its morality,

as a piece that *placed all kinds of vice in the ſtrongeſt and moſt odious light;* but others cenſured it as giving encouragement not only to vice, but to crimes, by making a highwayman the hero, and diſmiſſing him at laſt unpuniſhed. It has been even ſaid, that after the exhibition of the *Beggar's Opera*, the gangs of robbers were evidently multiplied. He was buried in Weſtminſter-abbey, with this epitaph, written by himſelf, engraved on his tomb:

"Life is a jeſt, and all things ſhow it;
"I thought ſo once, but now I know it."

Dr. *Arbuthnot*, an eminent Scottiſh writer and phyſician, who died in 1734, was nearly allied to the noble family of that name. After being educated at Aberdeen, he came to London, and ſupported himſelf at firſt by teaching the mathematics. By accidentally adminiſtering relief to prince George of Denmark, he obtained the appointment of phyſician to his royal highneſs, and in 1709 he was appointed phyſician in ordinary to queen Anne, and admitted a fellow of the royal college of phyſicians. In 1714, he engaged with Pope and Swift in a ſcheme to write a ſatire on the abuſe of human learning, under the title of Memoirs of Martinus Scriblerus. The doctor was one of that bright conſtellation of wits which adorned the reign of queen Anne. His humour is generally attic, without any mixture of ill-nature, for he was himſelf a moſt humane and amiable man. Dr. Swift in the "verſes on his own death," mentions Dr. Arbuthnot as one of his intimate friends.

"Here ſhift the ſcene to repreſent,
"How thoſe I love my death lament;
"Poor *Pope* will grieve a month, and *Gay*
"A week, and Arbuthnot a day;
"St. John himſelf * will ſcarce forbear,
"To bite his pen and drop a tear;
"The reſt will give a ſhrug and cry
"*I'm ſorry—but we all muſt die.*"

* Lord Bolingbroke.

Dr.

Dr. *Derham*, who died in 1735, devoted himself to philosophical pursuits, and the agreeable study of nature, which he made subservient to the cause of religion and virtue. His Physico-Theology, in which he proves the existence of God, from his works of creation, and his Astro-Theology, in which he demonstrates the same great truth, from a survey of the heavens, are valuable performances.

Mrs. *Rowe*, an eminent English poetess, whose maiden name was Singer, died in 1737. Prior, the poet, is said to have paid his addresses to her, which she declined accepting, and married Mr. Thomas Rowe, an ingenious young gentleman, who soon left her a widow, in which state she continued the remainder of her life. Her *Letters*, and *Devout Exercises of the Heart*, breathe a spirit of philanthropy and rational piety.

Dr. *Halley*, a famous astronomer, who died in 1742, was the first who observed the great comet in 1680. He had the command of a ship sent out by king William for the express purpose of establishing his theory of the variation of the compass, when, by his astronomical discoveries, he greatly improved the art of navigation. He was afterwards appointed professor of geometry in the university of Oxford, and astronomer royal.

Dr. *Saunderson*, author of the "Elements of Algebra," who died in 1739, was deprived of his sight by the small-pox, when he was only twelve months old; so that he retained no more idea of the nature of colours, than if he had been born blind. Notwithstanding this, he acquired a knowledge of the learned languages, and by hearing the works of Euclid and Archimedes read to him in their original Greek, attained the highest pitch of mathematical fame. His unhappy condition procured him many friends, and he was invited to Cambridge, not as a scholar, but as a master, where he taught the *philosophy* and *optics* of Newton to a crowded audience. The queen granted him a mandate for making him a master of arts, in order that he might be qualified for Lucasian professor of

the mathematics, to which office he was elected in 1711.

Alexander Pope, esq. an illustrious poet, who died in 1744, says in his poems, "that *he lisp'd in numbers*, and that he could not remember the time when he began to make verses." In the style of fiction it might have been said of him as of Pindar, that when he lay in his cradle, *the bees swarmed about his mouth*. A propensity to versification manifested itself in him as soon as he had read Dryden, whom he preferred to the other poets. At the age of ten, he was impressed with such veneration for his instructor, that he persuaded some friends to take him to the coffee-house which Dryden frequented, and pleased himself with having seen him. So early did he feel the power of harmony, and the zeal of genius. "Who does not wish," says Johnson, "that Dryden could have known the value of the homage that was paid him, and foreseen the greatness of his young admirer!" Self-confidence is the first requisite to great undertakings; and he that is pleased with himself, easily imagines that he shall please others. After publishing some well-written odes and translations before he was fourteen years of age, Pope went to Binfield, and delighted himself with his own poetry. He tried all styles, and many subjects. He wrote a comedy, a tragedy, and an epic poem, which he afterwards destroyed; and, as he confesses, *thought himself the greatest genius that ever was*. His pastorals first introduced him to the wits of the day; his Windsor Forest added to his growing fame; but his Essay on Criticism, which is a master-piece in the art, extended it far and near. His judgment as a poet being universally acknowledged from those admirable pieces, his next publication no less happily proved the extent of his fancy, and the power of his creative imagination. This was the "Rape of the Lock," an inimitable display of poetical talents. This is the most airy, the most ingenious, and the most delightful of all his compositions, occasioned by a frolick of gallantry, rather too familiar, in which lord Petre cut off a lock of Mrs. Arabella

Arabella Fermor's hair. The design of the Poet is, as he tells us, to laugh at *the little unguarded follies of the female sex*. In 1713, appeared his proposals for a translation of "Homer's Iliad," the subscriptions for which amounted to 6000l. besides 1200l. which Lintot gave him for the copy. He then purchased a house at Twickenham, whither he retired with his father and mother. By the assistance of Broome and Fenton, he translated the "Odyssey," and, not long after, appeared his "Essay on Man," an ethical poem, in which there are many beautiful and highly finished passages.

Pope's method of composition was to write his first thoughts in his first words, and gradually to amplify, decorate, rectify, and refine them. He has left in his *Homer* a treasure of poetical elegancies to posterity. His version may be said to have tuned the English tongue; for since its appearance, no writer, however deficient in other powers, has wanted melody. In poetical vigour, Dryden is superior to Pope; but though the former has brighter paragraphs, he has not better poems.

Pope was fretful, and easily displeased. He would sometimes leave lord Oxford silently, no one could tell why, and was to be courted back by more letters and messages than the footmen were willing to carry. His frugality bordered upon parsimony. When he had two guests in his house, he would set a single pint upon the table; and having himself taken two small glasses would retire, and say, *Gentlemen I leave you to your wine*. He was, however, the friend of religion and virtue; and his letters are replete with professions of benevolence. It has been so long said as to be commonly believed, that the true characters of men may be found in their letters, and that he who writes to his friend lays his heart open before him. But very few can boast of hearts which they dare lay open to themselves, and, certainly, what we hide from ourselves we do not shew to our friends. In the eagerness of conversation the first emotions of the mind often burst

all his excellencies and all his defects has ſo well maintained his claim to be conſidered as original.

The company of dean Swift was courted by perſons of the firſt rank in life and literature. He had a rule never to ſpeak more than a minute at a time, and wait for others to take up the converſation. He was peculiarly happy in punning; and uſed to ſay, "that none deſpiſed that talent but thoſe who were without it." He alſo greatly excelled in telling a ſtory, but in the latter part of his life uſed to tell them rather too often. He never dealt in the double entendre, or profaneneſs upon ſacred ſubjects. He loved to have ladies in the company, becauſe it preſerved, he ſaid, the delicacy of converſation.

Some time after Dr. Swift came to the deanery of St. Patrick's, taking his rounds through the liberty of his precinct, he ſaw a nailer and his wife at work, very early in the morning, and, ſtopping to talk with them, aſked how much they earned in a week, what children they had, and how much money to carry on trade? They anſwered, they had five children, no ſtock, nor any money to carry on buſineſs, nor could they ever have a penny at the week's end, being obliged to pay very dear for iron rods they got from the ironmonger, who employed them to make nails, which he had very cheap from them, and made them pay the higheſt price for rod-iron, as he gave them credit, and took it out in work. The dean then aſked the man how much money would be ſufficient to buy in rod-iron and coals, and to ſell his nails to another ironmonger, and to diſpoſe of ſome in his own ſhop. The nailer anſwered, "thirty ſhillings would make him very happy." The dean replied, "ſuppoſe I ſhould lend you that money, how do you propoſe to pay it?" The nailer anſwered, "by a ſhilling every week." "Then ſaid the dean, I will advance you three guineas, to be paid by a ſhilling every week; I inſiſt upon your being punctual in the payment, very honeſt, and very induſtrious, which is the ſureſt way to thrive." The dean, although he often paſſed by the ſhop, ſeeing

ing the nailer ſtill continue his induſtry, did not call on him in three years; then aſked them, "how his wife and children were? what ſtock in trade he had by him? and whether he could pay him the money he lent him? The nailer immediately ſhewed him his wife and children, who were very clean and decently dreſſed; told him how much his trade and ſtock were increaſed; that he had the money ready to pay him, for which he, his wife, and children, were moſt thankful, as in duty bound, for their extreme happineſs from ſo generous and good a benefactor; and that, after paying the dean, he had thirteen guineas and odd money, and was out of debt." This debt the dean refuſed; and made the nailer a preſent of five guineas more for his great induſtry and œconomy! This was the firſt cauſe of the dean's lending ſmall ſums to poor induſtrious tradeſmen.

The ſcholars of Trinity college, Dublin, had in a *gaité du cœur*, invited themſelves to ſupper with the dean one Friday night, on which night, they never have any ſupper throughout the year, and are therefore ſtung, as they call it, among their friends. The dean very pleaſantly received them; and, to their ſurprize, ſupper was brought in before they could imagine it was ready. The table was laid out in the moſt neat manner, and the dean being ſeated, ſeveral ſervants brought in the diſhes covered. Come gentlemen, ſays he, uncover; which they did, and found the diſhes contain nothing but ragouts of old books and muſty rums; at which, though perhaps not well pleaſed with their fare, they forced their features into a grin of complaiſance; as admiring the dean's wit, not doubting but the ſecond courſe would make amends for the inſipidity of the firſt, and that Epicurus would follow Burgerſdicius and Keckerman. The ſecond courſe came in, covered alſo. They did as before, and found nothing but ſalt. There, ſaid the dean, there is a feaſt for Plato. There are *Sales Atticæ* for you; indulge, indulge. This produced another laugh. The ſecond courſe being removed, in came the third, which

conſiſted of plates covered, in number tallying with the gueſts; each uncovering his plate, found half-a-crown. Some took them up, and others left them, and thus ended the entertainment: the dean uſhered them to the door in the waiter's phraſe of, *kindly welcome, gentlemen.*

In the reign of king William, to whom Swift was no friend, on account of a neglect he met with from that prince, and therefore had connected himſelf with the oppoſite party, it happened, that the king had either choſen, or had actually taken this motto for his ſtate coach in Ireland,

Non rapui, ſed recepi;

I did not ſteal, but I received;

alluding to his being called to the throne by the people, and to clear himſelf from the imputation of violence. This was induſtriouſly reported to Swift by one of his emiſſaries: and what, ſaid he to the dean, do you think the prince of Orange has choſen for his motto on his ſtate coach? *Dutch cheeſe*, ſaid the Dean, with a reluctant ſmile, (for he ſcorned to laugh, and even a ſmile was extorted.) No, ſaid the gentleman, but, *Non rapui, ſed recepi.* Ay ay, ſays Swift; but there is an old ſaying and a true one, *the receiver is as bad as the thief.* An embittered reflection, not unworthy of his known miſanthropy, and rather ſuperior contempt of the degeneracy of the human ſpecies.

A few days before his death, Dr. Swift took an airing in a carriage with a friend, in the Phœnix park. Obſerving ſome workmen at a diſtance, he enquired what they were about, and was informed they were building a magazine. "A magazine! (replied the wit, in his laſt interval of reaſon,) "do my dear friend, oblige me with your pencil and tablet;" on which he inſtantly wrote the following epigram, which is the laſt flaſh of his genius on record:

O ſolid proof of Iriſh ſenſe!
Here Iriſh wit is ſeen;
When nothing's left for a defence,
We build a magazine!

Mr.

Mr. *Colin Maclaurin*, an eminent mathematician, author of a much approved ſyſtem of Fluxions, and a treatiſe of Algebra; was educated at the univerſity of Glaſgow, where he applied himſelf aſſiduouſly to the ſtudy of mathematics. In 1717 he obtained the mathematical profeſſorſhip in the mariſchal college of Aberdeen, and two years afterwards became a fellow of the royal ſociety of London. In 1725 he was choſen to ſupply the place of Mr. James Gregory, profeſſor of mathematics at Edinburgh. In 1745 having been active in fortifying Edinburgh againſt the rebels, he was compelled to fly from that place, and took refuge with archbiſhop Herring, at York. He died the year following.

James Thomſon, eſq. an excellent paſtoral poet, was the ſon of a Scottiſh clergyman. He was educated at Jedburgh, from whence he removed to the univerſity of Edinburgh; where he was diſtinguiſhed as a man of genius. Being deſigned for the church, he performed a probationary exerciſe by explaining a pſalm, when his diction was ſo poetically ſplendid, that Mr. Hamilton, the profeſſor of divinity, reproved him for ſpeaking language unintelligible to a popular audience. Having now reſolved to go to London, the only ſtage on which a poet can appear, with any hope of advantage, he procured recommendations to ſeveral perſons of conſequence, which he had tied up carefully in his handkerchief; but as he paſſed along the ſtreet, with the gaping curioſity of a new comer, his attention was upon every thing rather than his pocket, and his magazine of credentials were ſtolen from him. Thomſon, however, met with a kind reception from his friends, and in a ſhort time publiſhed his *Winter*. He dedicated his *Spring* to the counteſs of Hertford, whoſe practice it was to invite every ſummer ſome poet into the country, to hear her verſes and aſſiſt her ſtudies. This honour was one ſummer conferred on Thomſon, who took more delight in carouſing with lord Hertford and his friends than aſſiſting her ladyſhip's poetical operations, and therefore never received another ſummons.

His poetical purſuits were for a time interrupted by his accompanying on his travels the honourable Charles Talbot, ſon of the lord chancellor, with whom he viſited moſt of the courts, and capital cities of Europe. Soon after his return, he loſt not only his noble friend and fellow traveller, but alſo lord Talbot himſelf, and thus became reduced from an eaſy competency, to a ſtate of precarious dependence; in which he paſſed the remainder of his life, excepting the two laſt years of it, when he enjoyed the place of ſurveyor general of the Leeward iſlands, procured for him by lord Lyttelton. He died in 1748. An inſcription has been placed on a braſs tablet over his grave in Richmond church, at the expence of the earl of Buchan. His *Seaſons* bring before us the whole magnificence of nature, whether pleaſing or dreadful, and have, neither in ſtyle nor imagery, ever been equalled. Thomſon thinks in a peculiar train, and he thinks always as a man of genius; he looks round on nature with the eye, which nature beſtows only on a poet. The reader wonders that he never ſaw before what Thomſon ſhews him, and that he never yet has felt what Thomſon impreſſes. His tragedy of Coriolanus was brought upon the ſtage after his death, recommended by a prologue, which Quin, who had long lived with Thomſon in fond intimacy, ſpoke in ſuch a manner as ſhewed him to be, on that occaſion, *no actor*. The commencement of this benevolence is very honourable to Quin, who is reported to have delivered Thomſon, then known to him only for his genius, from an arreſt, by a very conſiderable preſent; and its continuance is honourable to both; for friendſhip is not always the ſequel of obligation. Thomſon was ſilent in mingled company, but cheerful among ſelect friends, who always ſpoke with the moſt eager praiſe of his ſocial qualities, his warmth and conſtancy of friendſhip, and his adherence to his firſt acquaintance when the advancement of his reputation had left them behind him.

Dr. *Iſaac Watts*, a divine and poet of uncommon ſanctity, received his education under Mr. Rowe,

who kept an excellent seminary in London, and to whom his grateful pupil inscribed an ode, which was inserted in his Horæ Lyricæ. In 1696 he went to reside with sir John Hartop, as tutor to his son, in which situation he continued four years. He afterwards entered into the family of sir Thomas Abney, and became pastor of the congregation in Berry-street, St. Mary Axe. In 1728 he received the degree of D. D. from the universities of Edinburgh and Aberdeen. He died in 1741. Dr. Watts was a pious and amiable man; utterly free from all bigotry and sectarian pride. His talents were highly respectable, and he employed them in the most useful way. Few men have left behind such purity of character, or such monuments of laborious piety. He has provided instruction for all ages, from those who are lisping their first lessons, to the enlightened readers of Malbranche and Locke; he has left neither corporeal nor spiritual nature unexamined; he has taught the art of reasoning, and the science of the stars. His treatise on logic has been received into the universities, and therefore wants no private recommendation. "Few books have been perused by me, says Dr. Johnson, with greater pleasure than his *Improvement of the Mind*, of which the radical principles may indeed be found in Locke's *Conduct of the Understanding*, but they are so expanded and ramified by Watts, as to confer upon him the merit of a work in the highest degree useful and pleasing. Whoever has the care of instructing others, may be charged with deficiency in his duty, if this book is not recommended."—He excels in devotional poetry: and his version of the psalms is the best. By his natural temper Dr. Watts was quick of resentment; but, by his established and habitual practice, he was gentle, modest, and inoffensive. His tenderness appeared in his attention to children, and to the poor.

Dr. *Conyers Middleton*, a famous divine and critic, travelled into Italy, which gave occasion for his well-known letter from Rome, shewing the exact conformity between popery and paganism. His capital performance,

formance, is the hiſtory of Cicero, perhaps one of the completeſt pieces of biography ever written.

Lord *Bolingbroke*, who died in 1751, was one of the fineſt writers that any age has produced. His *Letters on Hiſtory* are excellent; but his philoſophical works ſhould be read with caution, as they contain many things which claſh with the great truths of revelation.

Dr. *Doddridge*, an eminent diſſenting miniſter, and author of many uſeful publications, was at the head of a flouriſhing academy in Northamptonſhire, about twenty years. His "*Riſe and Progreſs of Religion in the Soul*," and his "*Life of Colonel Gardiner*," deſerve the ſerious attention of youth. He died in 1751.

Dr. *Butler*, biſhop of Durham, who died in 1752, beſides a volume of elegant ſermons, publiſhed a moſt valuable work, entitled, "The Analogy of Religion, natural and revealed, to the Conſtitution and Courſe of Nature." In early life, he was placed by his friends, who were diſſenters, in a ſeminary of that perſuaſion, where he had for a fellow-pupil the eminent Dr. Watts.

Dr. *Whiſton*, a divine and mathematician of uncommon parts and learning, was ſir Iſaac Newton's deputy and ſucceſſor, in the Lucaſian profeſſorſhip of mathematics, Cambridge. He publiſhed ſeveral works explanatory of the Newtonian philoſophy, and had the honour of being one of the firſt, who rendered thoſe principles popular. The work by which he is beſt known, is "*A Theory of the Earth from its Original to the Conſummation of all Things;*" wherein the creation of the world in ſix days, the univerſal deluge, and the general conflagration, as laid down in the holy ſcriptures, are ſhewn to be perfectly agreeable to reaſon and philoſophy.—Being in converſation with ſir Robert Walpole, the diſcourſe happened to turn upon politics, when Whiſton affirmed "that there could be no true policy without being bottomed by morality." Sir Robert replied, "he had heard a great deal of thoſe *theories* in his time: but as men were conſtituted, it would be impoſſible to put them into practice."

Whiſton ſtill continued in his opinion, whilſt ſir Robert took the contrary ſide; at laſt, ſeeing no end of the argument, Whiſton drily replied, "Suppoſe, ſir, *you try my advice for once*, and then give me your opinion afterwards."—The queen walking with him, in Hampton-court Gardens, obſerved, "that however right he might be in his notions on ſome ſubjects, it would be perhaps better if he kept them to himſelf."—"Is your Majeſty really ſerious in your advice?" ſaid the old man. "I am really," replied the Queen. "Why then," ſays Whiſton, not the leaſt abaſhed, "had Martin Luther been of your way of thinking, where would your Majeſty have been at this time!" He died in 1752.

Dr. *Mead*, author of an ingenious treatiſe on *Poiſons*, and phyſician to George II. was at the head of his profeſſion for almoſt half a century. He was a very liberal man, and conſidered as the Mæcenas of the age. The clergy, and in general all men of learning were welcome to his advice; and his doors were open every morning to the *moſt indigent*, whom he frequently aſſiſted with *money*. No foreigner of any literature, taſte, or even curioſity, ever came to England without being introduced to Dr. Mead. He died in 1754.

Henry Fielding, eſq. was a writer of a very lively imagination. His genius ſhines to the greateſt advantage in his Joſeph Andrews and Tom Jones, two ſterling novels, whoſe merits are too well known to need an encomium. He poſſeſſed an eſtate of 200l. per annum, and married a lady with 1500l. This fortune, had it been conducted with prudence and œconomy, might have ſecured to him a ſtate of independence for life, and with the helps it might have derived from the productions of a genius unincumbered with anxieties and perplexity, might have even afforded him an affluent income; but, fond of figure and magnificence, he threw wide open the gates of hoſpitality, and ſuffered his whole patrimony to be devoured by hounds, horſes, and entertainments. He died at Liſbon in 1754. The laſt gleam of his wit and humour faintly

faintly sparkled in the journal he left behind him of his *Voyage* to that place.

William Collins, esq. an unfortunate, but admirable poet, first courted the notice of the public by some verses to a *Lady weeping*, published in the *Gentleman's Magazine*. He came to London a literary adventurer, with many projects in his head, and very little money in his pocket. He designed many works; but the frequent calls of immediate necessity broke his schemes, and suffered him to pursue no settled purpose. A man, doubtful of his dinner, or trembling at a creditor, is not much disposed to abstracted meditation, or remote enquiries. He published proposals for a History of the Revival of Learning; but probably not a page of it was ever written. His *Oriental Eclogues*, however, and his *Ode on the Passions*, sufficiently evince his merit as a pastoral and descriptive poet. During the latter part of his life, he languished under mental derangement. He was for some time confined in a house of lunatics, and afterwards retired to the care of his sister in Chichester, his native city, where death in 1756 came to his relief.

Dr. *Hartley*, an eminent physician, who died in 1757, is well known by an excellent work, entitled, *Observations on Man, his Frame, his Duty, and his Expectations*. "You do well to take Hartley with you," said Dr. Johnson to a friend. "The Bible is the best book; but next to it, Dr. Hartley's is one of the best." The late Dr. Reid of Glasgow has also written on the *Intellectual Powers of Man* in a very masterly manner.

Samuel Richardson, esq. author of the admirable works, Pamela, Clarissa, and Charles Grandison, was placed as an apprentice to a printer, and carried on that business for many years in Salisbury-court, Fleet-street, with great reputation. Family misfortunes, and sedulous application, so far injured his weak nerves, as to make him, according to the expression of Pope, *tremblingly alive all o'er*, and he died of the effects of a paralytic disorder in 1761.

Dr.

Dr. *Leland*, a celebrated Engliſh diſſenting divine, who ſettled in Dublin, devoted his literary purſuits to the defence of chriſtianity, with the greateſt honour to himſelf, and advantage to the noble cauſe which he pleaded. His View of the Deiſtical Writers is a moſt valuable work. He died in 1761.

Lord *Anſon*, of immortal memory as a circumnavigator, was a cool and ſteady man, but too fond of play, of which he knew little, and was therefore the conſtant dupe of ſharpers. This made one wittily obſerve, that "though he had been round the world, he was never in it." His Voyage was drawn up under his own eye, by Mr. Robins, notwithſtanding it is publiſhed in the name of the chaplain, Mr. Walter. In 1751, he was appointed firſt lord of the admiralty, and, ſome years after, commanded the channel fleet, having under him the gallant ſir Edward Hawke. The laſt ſervice in which he was engaged, was in convoying to England her preſent majeſty. He died in 1762.

William Shenſtone, eſq. a very agreeable poet, after quitting the univerſity, retired to his paternal eſtate, the Leaſowes, which he laid out in great taſte. Here he devoted himſelf to rural pleaſures and poetry. To embelliſh the form of Nature is a laudable amuſement. This he did with ſuch judgment and fancy, as made his little domain the envy of the great, and the admiration of the ſkilful; a place to be viſited by travellers, and copied by deſigners. He planted walks in undulating curves, made water run where it would be heard, and ſtagnate where it would be ſeen, left intervals where the eye would be pleaſed, and thickened the plantation where there was ſomething to be concealed. The pleaſure of Shenſtone, however, was all in his eye. He valued what he valued merely for its looks. Nothing raiſed his indignation more than to aſk if there were any fiſhes in his water. In time his expences brought clamours about him, which overpowered the lamb's bleat and the linnet's ſong; and his groves were haunted by beings very different from fawns and faries. He ſpent his eſtate in adorning it,

and

and his death, in 1763, was probably haſtened by his anxieties. He was a lamp that ſpent its oil in blazing. There are ſome admirable ſtanzas in his *Paſtoral Ballad*; and the *School-miſtreſs* is a pleaſing poem.

Allan Ramſay, eſq. a celebrated Scottiſh poet, wrote ſeveral excellent ſongs and much eſteemed poems; but his beſt performance was "*The Gentle Shepherd*," a beautiful paſtoral comedy, in which nature is painted to the life.

Dr. *Young*, an excellent writer both in proſe and verſe, firſt publiſhed his poem, called "*The Laſt Day*," which gave great ſatisfaction, and procured him numerous friends, amongſt the reſt Addiſon; for whoſe "*Spectator*," he wrote ſeveral papers. The turn of his mind inclining him towards the church, he entered into orders, was made chaplain to the king, and obtained the living of Welwyn in Hertfordſhire. In his ſatires, entitled "*Love of Fame the Univerſal Paſſion*," the characters are ſelected with diſcernment, and drawn with nicety; the illuſtrations are happy, and the reflections juſt. Young has the gaiety of Horace without his laxity of numbers, and the morality of Juvenal with greater variation of images. But Swift ſays, that "the poet ſhould have been either more angry or more merry." In 1739 he married lady Elizabeth Lee, daughter of the earl of Litchfield, and widow of colonel Lee. She died the next year, and this mournful event produced his "*Complaint, or Night Thoughts*," in which he has exhibited a very wide diſplay of original poetry, variegated with deep reflections and ſtriking alluſions, a wilderneſs of thought, in which the fertility of fancy, ſcatters flowers of every hue and of every odour. "In this work," ſays Dr. Johnſon, "which finely repreſents the author's melancholy and morality, particular lines are not to be regarded; the power is in the whole, and in the whole there is a magnificence like that aſcribed to a Chineſe plantation, the magnificence of vaſt extent and endleſs diverſity." He died in 1765, aged eighty-four. Dr. Young enjoys the credit of an *extempore* epigram on Voltaire,

Voltaire, who, when he was in England, ridiculed, in the company of the jealous Engliſh poet, Milton's allegory of *Sin* and *Death*.

" You are ſo witty, profligate, and *thin*,
" At once we think thee Milton, Death and Sin."

The Rev. *Laurence Sterne*, author of " *Triſtram Shandy*," ſeveral excellent " *Sermons*," and " *A Sentimental Journey*," was an original and ingenious writer. Of his ſkill in delineating and ſupporting his characters, thoſe of his uncle Toby, and of Corporal Trim, afford ample proof. To his power in the pathetic, whoever ſhall read the ſtories of Le Fevre, Maria, the Monk, and the Dead Aſs, muſt, if he has feelings, be a ſufficient teſtimony. On entering into orders he obtained the living of Sutton through the intereſt of his uncle, who was a dignitary of York cathedral. He married in 1741; and ſoon after was made a prebendary of York. The following incident, about this time, very much contributed to eſtabliſh the reputation of Mr. Sterne's wit. He was ſitting in the coffee-houſe at York, when a ſtranger came in, who gave much offence to the company, conſiſting chiefly of gentlemen of the gown, by deſcanting too freely upon religion, and the hypocriſy of the clergy. The young fellow at length addreſſed himſelf to Mr. Sterne, aſking him, what were his ſentiments upon the ſubject; when, inſtead of anſwering him directly, he told the witling, that " his dog was reckoned one of the moſt beautiful pointers in the whole country, was very good-natured, but that he had an infernal trick, which deſtroyed all his good qualities! he never ſees a clergyman," continued Sterne, " but he immediately flies at him."— " How long may he have had that trick, ſir?"— " Ever ſince he was a *puppy*." The young man felt the keenneſs of the ſatire, turned upon his heel, and left Sterne to triumph. In 1762, Mr. Sterne went to France, and two years after to Italy, for the recovery of his health. He died in 1768. Garrick, who was his intimate friend and admirer, wrote the following epitaph for him:

" Shall

" Shall Pride a heap of ſculptur'd marble raiſe,
" Some worthleſs unmourn'd titled fool to praiſe,
" And ſhall we not by one poor grave-ſtone learn,
" Where genius, wit, and humour, ſleep with Sterne."

Dr. *Akenſide*, who died in 1770, was a celebrated poet, and phyſician to the queen. His great work is *The Pleaſures of Imagination*, which he publiſhed at the age of twenty-three. It is an example of great felicity of genius, and uncommon amplitude of acquiſitions, of a young mind ſtored with images, and much exerciſed in combining and comparing them. In the general fabrication of his lines, he is, perhaps, ſuperior to any other writer of blank verſe. His flow is ſmooth, and his pauſes are muſical. When the copy was brought to Mr. Dodſley to be ſold for 120l. he carried it to Mr. Pope, who adviſed him not to make a niggardly offer; for *this was no every-day writer*. Akenſide was one of innumerable inſtances to prove, that very ſublime qualities may ſpring from very low ſituations in life; for he had this in common with the high and mighty cardinal Wolſey, that he was the ſon of a *butcher* at Newcaſtle upon Tyne.

Dr. *Smollet*, a writer of great celebrity, was bred a ſurgeon, and was at the ſiege of Carthagena in that capacity. Of this expedition he wrote an acrimonious account, inſerted in his novel of *Roderic Random*, which was publiſhed in 1749, and brought the author conſiderable reputation. In the courſe of a few years appeared *Peregrine Pickle*, *Ferdinand Count Fathom*, *Sir Launcelot Greaves*, and *Humphry Clinker*; all of them popular works. The *Critical Review* was ſet on foot by him, and he continued to be the principal manager of it till 1763, when he went abroad for the recovery of his health. In 1766 he publiſhed an account of his travels; but his health ſtill continuing to decline he reviſited Italy, and died there in 1771. The doctor was a man of extenſive abilities, and a ſhrewd obſerver of life and manners, which he has admirably pourtrayed in his different publications.

Thomas

Thomas Gray, LL.B. an eminent poet, who died in 1771, after making the tour of France and Italy with Mr. Horace Walpole, reſided chiefly at Cambridge, where he was appointed profeſſor of modern hiſtory. He was perhaps the moſt learned man in Europe, being equally acquainted with the elegant and profound parts of ſcience. His *Elegy in a Country Church-yard*, abounds with images which find a mirror in every mind, and with ſentiments to which every boſom returns an echo. After the death of Cibber, Mr. Gray had the honour of refuſing the laurel, which was beſtowed on Mr. Whitehead.

Dr. *Gregory*, an eminent phyſician of Edinburgh, died in 1773. He wrote with great ability in the line of his profeſſion, but his moral writings are thoſe by which he is beſt known. Theſe are, "A comparative View of the State of Man, and other Animals;" and "A Father's Legacy to his Daughters."

Lord *Cheſterfield*, an eminent ſtateſman, and elegant writer, was a particular favourite of George II. who made him high ſteward of the houſehold, and afterwards lord lieutenant of Ireland. In 1768 he loſt his ſon, which, with his own infirmities, rendered the remainder of his life very unpleaſant. *Infidelity* could not ſupport him in the time of trial, and he ſunk into a ſtate of wretched deſpondency. His celebrated *Letters to his Son* diſplay a brilliancy of talent, and much knowledge of the world, but ſhew him to be deſtitute of *principle*, and defective in judgment. With his lordſhip the art of pleaſing is every thing. But let young people ever remember, that a man of poliſhed manners, and mere external accompliſhments, without a good heart and virtuous conduct, is no better than a *painted ſepulchre*. He died in 1773.

Lord *Lyttelton*, an ingenious and good man, diſtinguiſhed himſelf in parliament as one of the warmeſt opponents of ſir Robert Walpole. In 1737, he became ſecretary to the prince of Wales, who being driven from St. James's, kept a ſeparate court, and openly countenanced the oppoſition. When ſir Robert Walpole retired, Lyttelton was made one of the

lords

lords of the treaſury. In 1747, he publiſhed his *Obſervations on the Converſion of St. Paul;* a treatiſe to which Infidelity has never been able to fabricate a ſpecious anſwer. His laſt literary work was the *Hiſtory of Henry II.* which does honour to his judgment and candour. His lordſhip married miſs Lucy Forteſcue of Devonſhire, with whom he lived in the higheſt degree of connubial felicity. But human pleaſures are ſhort. She died in childbed about five years afterwards, when, after bewailing her loſs for ſome time, he was content to ſeek happineſs by a ſecond marriage. But the experiment was unſucceſsful. He died the death of a Chriſtian in 1773; of which event his phyſician gave a very affecting and inſtructive account. "Doctor," ſaid he, "you ſhall be my confeſſor. When I firſt ſet out in the world, attempts were made to ſhake my belief in Chriſtianity. I ſaw difficulties which ſtaggered me; but I kept my mind open to conviction. The evidences and doctrines of it, ſtudied with attention, made me a moſt firm believer of the Chriſtian religion. I have made it the rule of my life, and it is the ground of my future hopes. I have erred and ſinned, but have repented, and never indulged any vicious habits." When the ſymptoms of death came on, he gave his dying benediction to all around him, ſaying, "Be good, be virtuous, you muſt come to this."

Dr. *Goldſmith*, a pleaſing poet and hiſtorian, travelled over the greater part of the continent, enjoying the ſcenes of nature, and ſtudying the human paſſions. He ſubſiſted chiefly by a little ſkill in muſic, which made him acceptable to the peaſantry; but he often met with a kind reception at the religious houſes, where his genius and learning were much eſteemed. On his return to London, he roſe by degrees into fame, from his poems, plays, and other writings. He might have acquired a competency, had he not been too generous, and otherwiſe laviſh of his money, which conſtantly kept him poor. He died in 1774. His *Vicar of Wakefield*,

Field, *Traveller*, and *Deſerted Village*, have great merit, and will always be admired.

Dr. *Hawkeſworth*, author of the *Adventurer*, an excellent periodical publication, was bred to the buſineſs of a watch-maker. Archbiſhop Herring was ſo well pleaſed with this work, that he conferred on him the degree of LL.D. He was employed to compile an account of the diſcoveries made in the South Seas, for which he received the enormous ſum of 6000l. He then became an Eaſt-India director, and died in 1775.

David Hume, eſq. a profound and ſagacious hiſtorian, died in 1776. His Hiſtory of England is the beſt extant. In his other writings he often loſes himſelf in the mazes of ſcepticiſm. The young and unexperienced, therefore, ought not to enter the labyrinth, leſt they ſhould not ſo eaſily find their way out.

William Pitt, the illuſtrious earl of Chatham, firſt diſtinguiſhed himſelf in parliament, by his powerful eloquence in oppoſition to ſir Robert Walpole. For this the ducheſs of Marlborough left him in her will, in 1745, 10,000l. During his own adminiſtration, his eye ran through every department of the ſtate, and therefore, as he was vigilant, all was activity and promptitude. Thus the deſigns of the enemy were baffled, and his own were executed before they were ſuſpected. On the death of George II. a new ſet of men came into power. The earl of Bute became the confidential friend of the young monarch, and Mr. Pitt, finding neither himſelf nor his meaſures acceptable, reſigned his place about the end of 1761. When the important queſtion of general warrants was diſcuſſed in parliament, his love of rational liberty broke forth in ſtrains which a Tully or a Demoſthenes would have liſtened to with ſatisfaction. He declared them repugnant to every principle of freedom. Were they tolerated, the moſt innocent could not be ſecure. "By the Britiſh conſtitution," continued he, "every man's houſe is his caſtle: not that it is ſurrounded by walls and battlements; it may be a ſtraw-built ſhed; every wind of heaven may whiſtle round it; all the elements

of

of heaven may enter it; but the king cannot; the king dare not." The earl of Chatham, from the beginning of the American war, ſet himſelf vigorouſly in oppoſition to the mad meaſures of an infatuated miniſtry. His eloquence ſhook the ſenate, and echoed through the kingdom. He warned the nation againſt an unnatural and fruitleſs conteſt; and his laſt effort in public was in ſpeaking on the queſtion of *American Independence*, on the 8th day of April, 1778. In the midſt of his ſpeech he was ſeized with a convulſive fit, and died on the 11th of the ſame month. His remains lay in ſtate in the Jeruſalem chamber, and were afterwards depoſited with great ſolemnity in Weſtminſter-Abbey, where a monument was erected to his memory.

Dr. *Armſtrong*, an eminent phyſician and poet, died in 1779. The *Art of preſerving Health* will tranſmit his name to poſterity as one of the firſt Engliſh writers. There is a claſſical correctneſs and cloſeneſs of ſtyle in this poem that are truly admirable, and the ſubject is raiſed and adorned by numberleſs poetical images. Dr. Mackenzie, in his *Hiſtory of Health*, has this beautiful eulogium of it: "To give every charming deſcription and beautiful paſſage of this poem, one muſt tranſcribe the whole. We cannot, however, expect new rules, where the principal deſign was to raiſe and warm the heart into a compliance with the ſolid precepts of the ancients, which he has enforced with great ſtrength and elegance. And, upon the whole, he has convinced us, by his own example, that we are not to blame antiquity for acknowledging,

"*One power of phyſic, melody and ſong.*"

David Garrick, eſq. who died in 1779, was a *prodigy* of theatrical accompliſhments; for he could, without the leaſt preparation, transform himſelf into any character, tragic or comic, and ſeize inſtantaneouſly upon any paſſion of the human mind. The town often wiſhed to ſee the celebrated Quin and this great actor fairly matched in two characters of equal importance. *The Fair Penitent* preſented an opportunity to diſplay their ſeveral merits, when it was obſerved that

Quin

Quin changed colour, and Garrick ſeemed to be embarraſſed. The former was too proud to own his feelings on the occaſion; but Garrick was heard to ſay, "I believe Quin was as much frightened as myſelf." Quin had been ſtrongly patronized by Frederic Prince of Wales, and was employed to inſtruct the royal children in a correct pronunciation. The king's firſt ſpeech being praiſed for grace and diction, Quin exclaimed, "I taught the boy." With theſe men of wit and talents *Macklin* was contemporary, whoſe greateſt character was Shylock, and his performance of it drew from Mr. Pope the following couplet:

"This is the Jew
"That Shakeſpeare drew."

Though Macklin was very benevolent, he had an extraordinary ſet of features, which made Quin ſay, "If God writes a legible hand, that fellow's a villain."

Dr. *Warburton*, author of the *Divine Legation of Moſes*, was a prelate of gigantic abilities. He wrote a vindication of Pope's Eſſay on Man, in conſequence of which a firm friendſhip was eſtabliſhed between them. Mr. Pope introduced him to Ralph Allen, eſq. of Prior Park, whoſe niece he married. The poet left him half of his library, and the property of his works. In 1746 he was called by the ſociety of Lincoln's Inn to be their preacher. He was afterwards made dean of Briſtol, and at length biſhop of Glouceſter. He died in 1779, having ſurvived his intellectual faculties.

James Harris, eſq. father of lord Malmſbury, a gentleman of uncommon parts and learning, after being appointed commiſſioner of the admiralty, was made ſecretary to the queen in 1774. Biſhop Lowth ſays that his *Hermes*, or *a Philoſophical enquiry concerning Univerſal Grammar*, "is the moſt beautiful and perfect example of analyſis that has been exhibited ſince the days of Ariſtotle." He died in 1780.

Sir William Blackſtone, a learned lawyer, whoſe name is immortalized by his *Commentaries on the Laws of England*

England, obtained Mr. Benſon's prize-medal, at Oxford, for the beſt verſes on Milton. At the age of twenty he compoſed a treatiſe on the elements of architecture, for his own uſe. The ſtudy of the law put an end to theſe amuſing purſuits. As a counſel, however, he made but little progreſs, having no ready flow of eloquence or graceful delivery. In 1770, he became one of the judges in the court of King's Bench; from whence, ſhortly after, he removed to the Common Pleas. He died in 1780.

John Dunning, lord *Aſhburton*, who died in 1783, was one of the moſt diſtinguiſhed pleaders that ever adorned the Engliſh bar. There were few cauſes tried in the court of King's Bench, in which he was not employed as leading counſel either for the plaintiff or defendant. His induſtry and zeal for the intereſt of his clients were equal to his abilities. The cauſes of the poor and oppreſſed he frequently pleaded *without reward*.

Dr. *Johnſon*, who died in 1784, was one of the greateſt writers of whom this country has to boaſt. In his Dictionary and Periodical Publications, he has fixed our language and regulated our morality. Though he was ſeventy-two years of age when he began his Lives of the Engliſh Poets, we perceive no decay of intellect, nor abatement of his wonted vigour. On the contrary it is a treaſure of ſound criticiſm, and a model of literary biography. Soon after the appearance of this work, nature gave ſymptoms of failure, and warned him of his diſſolution. This was an event, which he had always looked to with dread. But the laſt days of this excellent man were ſun-ſhine. His gloomy apprehenſions vaniſhed; he ſaw the ground of his confidence, and departed in ſtrong faith and lively hope. Johnſon had a noble independence of mind, and could never bear to ſtoop to any man however exalted, or to diſguiſe his ſentiments to flatter another. His judgment was uncommonly acute and ſteady, his imagination quick and ready, and his converſation brilliant and inſtructive.

Dr.

Dr. *Lowth*, biſhop of London, when profeſſor at Oxford, delivered thoſe admirable lectures on the *Sacred Poetry of the Hebrews*, which have immortalized his name. He publiſhed likewiſe an excellent *Grammar* of the *Engliſh Language*, and a *Tranſlation of Iſaiah*, the ſublimeſt poetry in the world. He died in 1787.

John Whitehurſt, F. R. S. an eminent philoſophical and mechanical genius, having ſettled at Derby as a watch-maker, made the clock and chimes of the beautiful tower of All Saint's church, in that city. From his vicinity to the many ſtupendous phænomena in Derbyſhire, conſtantly preſented to his obſervation, he was excited to inveſtigate their cauſes. Being appointed ſtamper of the money-weights in 1775, he removed to London, where he ſoon after publiſhed his "Enquiry into the Original State and Formation of the Earth," which will remain a monument of his fame to future ages. He died in 1788, at his houſe in Bolt-court, Fleet-ſtreet, where Mr. Ferguſon, another celebrated ſelf-taught philoſopher had recently lived and died. His death was lamented not only by his numerous friends, but by every lover of ſcience and virtue.

Thomas Day, eſq. who died in 1789, during the American war, publiſhed ſeveral poems and pamphlets, reprobating the conduct of Britain in that conteſt. His fame, however, would not have been ſecured by the merit of theſe publications. His *Sandford and Merton*, a book purpoſely intended for the uſe of children, does him the greateſt credit. This excellent work, as well as Robinſon Cruſoe, and Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progreſs*, ought to be in every young gentleman's library.

Dr. *Adam Smith*, profeſſor of philoſophy in the univerſity of Glaſgow, died in 1790. His "Theory of Moral Sentiments," and his popular work, entitled "An Enquiry into the Nature and Cauſes of the Wealth of Nations," are maſterly performances.

Dr. *Henry*, an eminent Scottiſh divine and hiſtorian, who died in 1790, is well known as the author of an

hiſtory of Great Britain, on a new plan, which has been highly approved. This abridgment is, in great meaſure, written on the ſame plan.

John Howard, eſq. the philanthropiſt, viſited all Europe, "not to ſurvey the ſumptuouſneſs of palaces, or the ſtatelineſs of temples," ſays Mr. Burke; "not to make accurate meaſurements of the remains of ancient grandeur, nor to form a ſcale of the curioſity of modern art; nor to collect medals, or collate manuſcripts:—but to dive into the depths of dungeons; to plunge into the infection of hoſpitals; to ſurvey the manſions of ſorrow and pain; to take the gauge and dimenſions of miſery, depreſſion and contempt; to remember the forgotten, to attend to the neglected, to viſit the forſaken, and compare and collate the diſtreſſes of all men in all countries." In 1789 he publiſhed an account of the principal lazarettos in Europe, in which he ſignified his intention of reviſiting Ruſſia and Turkey, and of extending his route into the eaſt. A little before he left England, when a friend expreſſed his concern at parting with him, from an apprehenſion that they ſhould never meet again, he cheerfully replied, "We ſhall ſoon meet in heaven;" and as he rather expected to die of the plague in Egypt, he added, "the way to heaven from Grand Cairo is as near as from London." This good man did actually fall a ſacrifice to his humanity; for in viſiting a ſick patient at Cherſon, who had a malignant fever, he caught the infection, and died in the beginning of the year 1790. Mr. Howard's labours have had their effect in this country, by cauſing his plans to be adopted in moſt of our priſons.

The Rev. *Thomas Warton*, B. D. a celebrated biographer and poet, in 1785, obtained the appointment of poet-laureat, and at the ſame time was elected Camden profeſſor of ancient hiſtory, in the univerſity of Oxford. His hiſtory of Engliſh poetry evinces a ſingular combination of extraordinary talents and attainments. He died in 1790, and was ſucceeded in the

the laureatſhip by Henry James Pye, eſq. a deſcendant of the ever-memorable patriot John Hampden.

Dr. *Price*, an eminent diſſenting miniſter, who died in 1791, is univerſally known and celebrated for his great abilities in arithmetical calculations. His diſſertations on providence, on prayer, on the reaſon for expecting that virtuous men ſhall meet after death in a ſtate of happineſs, and on the importance of chriſtianity, are replete with religious inſtruction.

Sir *Joſhua Reynolds*, a moſt eminent painter, and preſident of the Royal Academy, died in 1791. He chiefly applied himſelf to portrait paintings, though he ſometimes painted hiſtorical ſubjects in a ſtyle of uncommon excellence. Dr. Goldſmith ſays of him,

" He was born to improve us in every part,
" His pencil our faces—his manners our heart."

He was the firſt promoter of the literary club, of which Johnſon, Burke, and other great men were members.

Sir *Richard Arkwright*, a celebrated manufacturer, was originally a barber at Wirkſworth, in Derbyſhire. At Warrington he got acquainted with one Kay, a clock-maker, and projected with him a machine for ſpinning cotton. He afterwards erected works at Crumford, in Derbyſhire, and acquired a fortune of near half a million ſterling. His ſyſtem of machinery, to which he gave the name of a " Spinning Jenny," has given employment to thouſands of families, and been productive of great commercial advantage to his country. He was knighted on preſenting an addreſs to his majeſty, in 1786, as high ſheriff of the county of Derby, and died in 1792.

William Murray, earl of Mansfield, held the office of lord chief juſtice of the king's bench, for upwards of thirty years, with a ſplendor and reputation unrivalled. As a lawyer, he was undeniably the firſt man of the age. The benevolence of his private life was equal to the excellence of his public character. Of his diſintereſtedneſs let it be obſerved, that he thrice refuſed the office of lord high chancellor, and never took any

grant or emolument from the late king, for himself or any person belonging to him; and when the sufferers by the dreadful riots, in 1780, were to be reimbursed by the public, his lordship, in conjunction with the late great and good sir George Saville, nobly refused any compensation whatever, though his house in Bloomsbury-square was burnt to the ground, with his fine library, manuscripts, and other invaluable effects. He died in 1798.

Edward Gibbon, esq. an elegant historian, was born at Putney, in 1737. At the university of Oxford he contracted the principles of popery, which greatly alarmed his father, who, to recover him, sent him to a protestant minister at Lausanne, in Switzerland, where he did indeed renounce his new creed, but at the same time became a freethinker. His history of the "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire," is written in a brilliant style, and abounds with proofs of the genius and erudition of its author. It is to be lamented, however, that he deviated from the strict province of an historian, to throw out reflections injurious to the cause of christianity. But he has been sufficiently answered by bishop Watson and others. He died in 1794.

Dr. *Gerard*, professor of divinity in the university of Aberdeen, was the author of an excellent *Essay on Genius*, *Sermons*, and *Evidences of Christianity*. He died in 1795.

Dr. *Kippis*, an eminent divine and biographer, soon after the commencement of the *Monthly Review*, became a writer in that journal. He was the editor of the new edition of the *Biographia Britannica*, in which capacity he distinguished himself to great advantage. He wrote the *Life of Captain Cook*, in one volume 4to. He was also the writer of the *History of Knowledge*, *Learning*, and *Taste* in *Great Britain*, contained in the New Annual Register. The doctor was a judicious and intelligent writer, and his style is pure and perspicuous. He died in 1795.

Dr.

Dr. *James Fordyce*, an eloquent divine, who died in 1796, was early ſettled miniſter of the pariſh of Brechin, in Scotland, and afterwards removed to London, where he had a great and reſpectable congregation in Monkwell-ſtreet. He will long be known as the author of *Sermons to young Men* and *Women*, and of *Addreſſes to the Deity*.

Dr. *Campbell*, principal and profeſſor of divinity in Mariſchal college, Aberdeen, who died in 1796, was one of the beſt critics and theological writers of the age. His *Diſſertation on Miracles*, his *Tranſlation of the Goſpels*, and his *Philoſophy of Rhetoric*, will tranſmit his name to the lateſt poſterity.

Robert Burns, a Scottiſh poet of extraordinary genius, died in 1796. This pupil of nature was only a ploughman in Ayrſhire, and had a common education at the pariſh ſchool. His works, which were lately publiſhed, are highly eſteemed. The following beautiful ſong, in which the wounded and dying of a victorious army are ſuppoſed to join, may ſerve as a ſpecimen:

" Farewel, thou fair day, thou green earth, and ye ſkies,
Now gay with the broad ſetting ſun;
Farewel loves and friendſhips, ye dear tender ties,
Our race of exiſtence is run!

Thou grim king of terrors, thou life's gloomy foe,
Go frighten the coward and ſlave;
Go teach them to tremble, fell tyrant! but know
No terrors haſt thou to the brave!

Thou ſtrik'ſt the poor peaſant,—he ſinks in the dark,
Nor ſaves e'en the wreck of a name.
Thou ſtrik'ſt the young hero,—a glorious mark!
He falls in the blaze of his fame!

In the field of proud honour,—our ſwords in our hands,
Our king and our country to ſave,
While victory ſhines on life's laſt ebbing ſands,
Oh! who would not die with the brave!"

Edmund Burke, esq. who died in 1797, was one of the most eloquent men of his age; perhaps second to none in any age. He was a very elegant and forcible writer. His essay on the *Sublime and Beautiful* is a composition of much taste. The *Vindication of Natural Society* is a happy imitation of Bolingbroke, and, in fact, it deceived for a time the greatest admirers of that writer.

Thomas Pennant, esq. a celebrated naturalist and antiquarian, after travelling over his own country, went to the continent, where he became acquainted with Buffon, Pallas, and Linnæus. He was the author of an "*History of London*," of "*British and Indian Zoology*," and of several "*Tours*." He likewise published a "*History of Quadrupeds*." He died in 1798.

James Burnett, lord *Monboddo*, the learned and ingenious author of the *Origin of Language*, died in 1799, at the advanced age of eighty-five. A constitution of body, naturally framed to wear well and last long, was strengthened to his lordship by exercise, guarded by temperance, and by a tenor of mind too firm to be deeply broken in upon by those passions which consume the principles of life. He used to walk much in the open air, and sometimes to ride. It is said, that he even found the use of what he called the *Air Bath*, or the practice of occasionally walking about, for some minutes, naked, in a room filled with fresh and cool air, to be highly salutary.

William Cowper, esq. the celebrated author of the *Task*, and other delightful poems, died in 1800. In his works there are many beautiful descriptions of the charms of rural retirement.

"Man immur'd in cities, still retains
"His inborn inextinguishable thirst
"Of rural scenes, compensating his loss
"By supplemental shifts, the best he may.
"The most unfurnish'd with the means of life,
"And they that never pass their brick wall bounds
"To range the fields, and treat their lungs with air,

Yet,

" Yet feel the burning inſtinct: over head
" Suſpend their crazy boxes, planted thick,
" And water'd duly. There the pitcher ſtands
" A fragment, and the ſpoutleſs tea-pot there;
" Sad witneſſes how cloſe pent man regrets
" The country, with what ardour he contrives
" A peep at nature when he can no more.
" Hail, therefore, patroneſs of health and eaſe,
" And contemplation, heart conſoling joys
" And harmleſs pleaſures, in the throng'd abode
" Of multitudes unknown! hail, *rural life!*
" Addreſs himſelf who will to the purſuit
" Of honours, or emoluments, or fame;
" I ſhall not add myſelf to ſuch a chace,
" Thwart his attempts, or envy his ſucceſs.
" Some muſt be great. Great offices will have
" Great talents: and God gives to every man
" The virtue, temper, underſtanding, taſte,
" That lifts him into life, and lets him fall
" Juſt in the niche he was ordain'd to fill."

Mr. Cowper tranſlated into Engliſh blank verſe, the *Iliad* and *Odyſſey of Homer*, which were publiſhed in two volumes 4to. in 1791.

The Rev. Dr. *Blair*, profeſſor of Rhetoric and Belles Letters, in the univerſity of Edinburgh, who died in 1800, as a man of taſte and judgment, muſt be allowed almoſt the very firſt rank among his contemporaries. In his *Sermons*, he is often ſolemnly ſublime, more frequently tender and ſoftly pleaſing, ſometimes meltingly pathetic. Such perfect correctneſs was never before united with a fire ſo pure and vivid. Dr. Johnſon's opinion of them is contained in the following paragraph of a note to Mr. Strahan: " I have read over Dr. Blair's firſt ſermon with more than approbation; to ſay it is good, is to ſay too little. His doctrine is the beſt limited, the beſt expreſſed: there is the moſt warmth without fanaticiſm, the moſt rational tranſport." Mr. Strahan and Mr. Cadell gave one hundred pounds for the firſt volume. The ſale, however, was ſo rapid and extenſive, and the approbation

of the public ſo high, that, to their honour be it recorded, they made Dr. Blair a preſent, firſt of one ſum, and afterwards of another of 50l. thus voluntarily doubling the ſtipulated price; and when he prepared another volume, they gave him at once 300l. His *Lectures on Rhetoric* afford the beſt ſyſtem of the principles of taſte and the laws of literary compoſition, which has been offered to the world ſince the age of Quintilian. From about the time of the publication of the ſecond volume of his ſermons, he had a penſion from her majeſty of 200l. annually, which, when he ceaſed to lecture on rhetoric, was augmented to 300l. The copy-money of his works, received at different times, might amount in all to nearly 4000l.

CHAP. VII.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES. A. D. 1688—1803.

AFTER the revocation of the edict of Nantz, the perſecuted Proteſtants of France, to the number of almoſt a million, who had been chiefly employed in the French manufactures, took refuge in England, Holland, and other countries, where they could enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion; carrying along with them their arts and ingenuity, and even the fruits of their induſtry, to a very great amount, in gold and ſilver. They were much careſſed in England, where they improved or introduced the manufacture of hats, of ſilk, and of linen. The importation of thoſe articles from France was ſoon prohibited, as inconſiſtent with national intereſt; the culture of flax was encouraged; raw or unmanufactured ſilk was imported from Italy and China; beaver ſkins were procured from Hudſon's Bay, where ſettlements had been eſtabliſhed, and where all ſorts of furs were found in the greateſt plenty, and of the moſt excellent quality. Clock and watch-work was executed, in England, with the utmoſt

utmoſt elegance and exactneſs, as well as all other kinds of machinery, cutlery, and jewelry; the cotton manufactory, now ſo highly perfected, was introduced; and toys of every ſpecies were at length finiſhed with ſo much taſte and facility, as to become an article of exportation, even to the European continent, and privately to France itſelf, the birth-place of faſhion, and the nurſery of ſplendid bagatelles.

In the mean time, the colonies in North America enlarged their boundaries, and increaſed in wealth and population. New England furniſhed maſts and yards for the royal navy, as well as timber for other uſes; New York and New Jerſey, formerly known by the name of Nova Belgia, conquered from the Dutch, and Pennſylvania, ſettled a few years before the revolution, produced abundant crops of corn, and a variety of other articles for the European markets, as well as for the ſupply of the Engliſh iſlands in the Weſt Indies; the tobacco of Virginia and Maryland was become a ſtaple commodity, in high requeſt, and a great ſource of revenue; and the two Carolinas, by the culture of rice and indigo, and the manufacture of tar, pitch, and turpentine, ſo neceſſary to a naval and commercial people, ſoon became of vaſt importance.

But the moſt beneficial trade aroſe, and ſtill continues to proceed, from the colonies in the Weſt India iſlands. The rich produce of thoſe iſlands, which is chiefly intended for exportation, and all carried in the ſhips of the mother-country, affords employment to a great number of ſeamen; and as the inhabitants, who do not ſo much as make their own wearing apparel, or the common implements of huſbandry, are ſupplied with clothing of all kinds, houſehold furniture, tools, and even the luxuries of the table, from Britain and Ireland, the intercourſe is active, and productive of mutual proſperity and happineſs.

Of the Britiſh commerce, that branch which we enjoyed excluſively, viz, the commerce with our colonies, was long regarded as the moſt advantageous. Yet ſince the ſeparation of the American ſtates from Great

Britain, the trade, the induſtry, and manufactures of the latter have continually increaſed. New markets have opened, the returns from which are more certain and leſs tedious than thoſe from America. By ſupplying a great variety of markets, the ſkill and ingenuity of our artiſans have taken a wider range; the productions of their labour have been adapted to the wants, not of riſing colonies, but of nations the moſt wealthy and the moſt refined; and our commercial ſyſtem, no longer reſting on the artificial baſis of monopoly, has been rendered more ſolid as well as more liberal.

The trade of England to the Eaſt Indies conſtitutes one of the moſt ſtupendous political, as well as commercial machines, that is to be met with in hiſtory. The trade itſelf is excluſive, and lodged in a company, which has a temporary monopoly of it, in conſideration of money advanced to the government. Beſides their ſettlements on the coaſt of India, which they enjoy under certain reſtrictions by act of parliament, the Eaſt India company, through the various internal revolutions which have happened at Indoſtan, and the ambition or avarice of their ſervants and officers, have acquired ſuch territorial poſſeſſions, as render them the moſt formidable commercial body that has been known in the world, ſince the demolition of Carthage. Their revenues are only known, and that but imperfectly, to the directors of the company, who are choſen by the proprietors of the ſtock. The annual amount of them is ſuppoſed to be about four millions ſterling. The expences of the company in forts, fleets, and armies, for maintaining thoſe acquiſitions, are certainly very great; but after theſe are defrayed, the company not only clear a vaſt ſum, but were able to pay to government four hundred thouſand pounds yearly for a certain time, partly by way of indemnification for the expences of the public in protecting them, and partly as a tacit tribute for thoſe poſſeſſions that are territorial, and not commercial. This company exports to the Eaſt Indies all kinds of woollen manufacture, and all ſorts of hard-ware. Their imports

ports conſiſt of gold, diamonds, raw ſilks, pepper tea, and China ware, for home conſumption; and of wrought ſilks, muſlins, callicoes, cottons, and all the woven manufactures of India, for exportation to foreign countries.

With Turkey, Italy, Flanders, and Holland, the balance of trade is in favour of England. The goods exported to Poland, chiefly by way of Dantzic, are many, and the duties upon them low. A greater quantity of manufactured tobacco is ſent to that country, than to any other.

The acquiſitions which the Engliſh made upon the coaſt of Guinea, particularly their ſettlement at Senegal, opened new ſources of commerce with Africa. At preſent, England ſends to that coaſt, iron, braſs, lead-ſhot, ſwords, knives, fire-arms, gun-powder, and glaſs manufactures. The returns are in gold duſt, gum, dying and other drugs, red-wood, and ivory.

During the infancy of commerce with foreign parts, it was judged expedient to grant excluſive charters to particular bodies or corporations of men; hence the Eaſt India, South Sea, Hudſon's Bay, Turkey, Ruſſia, and Royal African companies; but the trade to Turkey, Ruſſia, and Africa, is now laid open, though the merchant who purpoſes to trade thither muſt become a member of the company, be ſubject to their laws and regulations, and advance a ſmall ſum at admiſſion, for the purpoſes of ſupporting conſuls, forts, &c.

With regard to the general account of England's foreign balance, the exports have been computed at ſeven millions ſterling, and its imports at five, of which above one million is re-exported: ſo that if this calculation be true, England gains, annually, three millions ſterling in trade; but this is a point upon which the moſt experienced merchants, and ableſt calculators, differ. It muſt be acknowledged, however, that many exceptions lie to particular eſtimates. The improvements at home, in iron, ſilk, linen, cotton, and other manufactures, and the imports from America, muſt

greatly diminiſh the Engliſh imports from abroad. On the other hand, ſome of the other European nations are making vigorous efforts for rivalling the Engliſh manufactures. Yet our foreign trade does not amount to one-ſixth part of the inland; the annual produce of the natural products and manufactures of England amounting to above forty-two millions. The gold and ſilver of England are received from Portugal, Spain, Jamaica, the American colonies, and Africa, but great part of this gold and ſilver we again export to Holland, and the Eaſt Indies; and it is ſuppoſed that two-thirds of the foreign traffic of England is carried on in the port of London.

Cornwall and Devonſhire ſupply tin and lead, and woollen manufactures are common to almoſt all the weſtern counties. Dorſetſhire makes cordage for the navy, and feeds a great number of ſheep. Somerſetſhire, beſides furniſhing lead and copper, has large manufactures of bone-lace, ſtockings, and caps. Briſtol is ſaid to employ 2000 maritime veſſels of all ſizes, coaſters, as well as ſhips employed in foreign voyages. It has many very important manufactures. The glaſs-bottle and drinking-glaſs works occupy fifteen large houſes.

Liverpool, which at the commencement of laſt century was only a hamlet of the pariſh of Walton, is now become, with reſpect to commerce, the ſecond port in the kingdom. It has an excellent harbour, formed with great labour and expence, ſhips being admitted into noble wet docks, ſecured by large flood gates. Its trade to America and Ireland is very conſiderable. A great number of ſhips are employed in the Greenland whale-fiſhery, and in the coaſting trade to London. Many good ſhips are built at Liverpool.

Manufactures of all kinds are carried on in London and its neighbourhood. The gold and ſilver manufactures of the metropolis, through the encouragement given by the court and the nobility, equal, if they do not exceed, thoſe of any country in Europe. Colcheſter is famous for its manufactures of bays and ſerges; and

and Norwich for its excellent ſtuffs, camelots, druggets, and ſtockings. Birmingham, though no corporation, is one of the largeſt and moſt populous towns in England, and carries on an amazing trade in excellent and ingenious hard-ware manufactures. It is here, and in Sheffield, which is famous for cutlery, that the true genius of Engliſh art and induſtry is to be ſeen; for ſuch are their excellent inventions for fabricating hard wares, that they can afford them for a fourth part of the price at which other nations can furniſh the ſame of an inferior kind.

The northern counties of England carry on a very great trade in the coarſer and ſlighter woollen manufactures; witneſs thoſe of Halifax, Leeds, Wakefield, and Richmond, and, above all, Mancheſter, which, by its variety of beautiful cottons, dimities, tickens, checks, and the like ſtuffs, is become a large and populous place, though only a village, and its higheſt magiſtrate a conſtable. Beautiful porcelain and earthen ware have of late years been manufactured in different places in England, particularly in Worceſterſhire and Staffordſhire. The Engliſh carpets, eſpecially thoſe of Axminſter, Wilton, and Kidderminſter, much excel in beauty any imported from Turkey, and are extremely durable. Paper, which was formerly imported in vaſt quantities from France and Holland, is now made in every part of the kingdom. It is highly probable, that, in a few years, the inland navigations which are completed in many parts of the country, will make great alterations in its internal ſtate.

After the extinction of the rebellion in 1745, Mr. Pelham diſcovered the true value of Scotland, as to *commerce*. All the benefits received by that country, for the relief of the people from their feudal tyranny, were effected by that great man. The increaſe of their ſhipping, within theſe fifty years paſt, has been very conſiderable. The exports of thoſe ſhips are compoſed chiefly of Scotch manufactures, fabricated from the produce of the ſoil, and the induſtry of its inhabitants. In exchange they import rice, cotton, ſugar, and rum,

from

from the Weſt Indies and other countries. The fiſheries of Scotland are not confined to their own coaſts, for they have a great concern in the whale-fiſhery, carried on upon the coaſt of Spitſbergen. The benefits of theſe and other fiſheries are perhaps equalled by manufactures, particularly that of iron at Carron, in Stirlingſhire. Their linen manufacture is in a flouriſhing ſtate. The town of Paiſley employs an incredible number of hands, in fabricating a particular kind of flowered and ſtriped lawns, which are a reaſonable, and elegant wear. Sugar-houſes, glaſs-works, and paper-mills, are erected every where. The Scotch carpeting makes neat and laſting furniture; and ſome eſſays have lately been made, with no inconſiderable degree of ſucceſs, to carry that branch of manufacture to as great perfection as in any part of Europe. The trade carried on by the Scots with England, is chiefly from Leith, and the eaſtern ports of the nation; but Glaſgow was the great emporium for the American commerce, before the commencement of the war with that people. The coal trade to England is well known; and they turned even their ſtones to account by their contract for paving the ſtreets of London. If the great trade in cattle, which the Scots formerly carried on with the Engliſh, is now diminiſhed, it is owing to the beſt of national cauſes, that of an increaſe of home conſumption.

It may not be improper here to remark, that the vital principle of all trade, which alone can render it advantageous to individuals, or the world at large, conſiſts in an *equality of barter*. In the commencement of every new colony, we ſee this poſition exemplified to the life. One man becomes an huſbandman, a ſecond a ſhepherd, a third a fiſherman, a fourth a mechanic, or an importer of foreign commodities, till at length every trade is introduced for which there is a mutual demand. All are alike aware that the commodities in which they deal are of prime neceſſity; and, therefore, the barter muſt be upon equal terms. In ſuch a ſituation of things, trade is an univerſal bleſſing.

At firſt, undoubtedly, there muſt not only exiſt an equality of barter, but, in a very conſiderable degree, an equality of property, yet the happineſs of the colony by no means depends upon the latter, provided the equality of barter be ſtill adhered to; nor can ſuch equality of property continue long. The great degree of induſtry in ſome, and of idleneſs in others, a variation in the poſſeſſion of mental or corporeal powers, and a multiplicity of other circumſtances, will neceſſarily, in a ſhort time, produce an inequality in the property of the inhabitants. Such inequality, however, may be highly beneficial to the riſing ſtate, by allowing thoſe who poſſeſs more ample wealth than the reſt, and who have no neceſſity for perſonal labour to ſupply their wants, an opportunity of engaging in new ſtudies and purſuits, which may eventually be an advantage to the ſociety at large. But the moment this inequality of wealth is allowed to produce an inequality of barter, trade will begin to exiſt no longer as an equal and univerſal bleſſing, and inequality of wealth will immediately become a ſerious evil. Let us ſuppoſe that the agriculturiſt is the wealthy man, and that he is determined to take every advantage which his ſuperior poſſeſſion of wealth will permit him. His neighbours, being leſs fortunate than himſelf, muſt be ſupplied with his own article of grain. They cannot exiſt without it. They become dependent upon him, and, be the price or quantity of wares demanded what it may, it muſt be acceded to; and the agriculturiſt immediately accumulates freſh riches, while he impoveriſhes thoſe around him. This is preciſely the ſituation of Great Britain, at the preſent period. There is much inequality of property among us, which, as has already been obſerved, is in itſelf an advantage rather than an evil, and which actually was ſo a century ago, when thoſe of large poſſeſſions did not devote their ſuperiority of wealth to the purpoſe of perſonal trade. At that time the equality of barter was much more univerſal, from the huſbandman to the merchant; and though the nation could not boaſt of ſo large a capital,

tal embarked, or ſo extenſive a commerce reſulting from it, yet from this very circumſtance of equality of barter, every rank, excepting the ſmall circle of monopoliſts, was comparatively richer and happier. At the period now referred to, thoſe who were poſſeſſed of large fortunes retired from the commercial world altogether, and lived upon the rental of their accumulated property. They did not interfere with, and conſequently did not injure, the equal barter of the markets. But the times are changed. We are now become a nation of traders. Men of all ranks, and of all fortunes, chooſe to employ their property in commercial adventures. They chooſe alſo to gain as much as they poſſibly can, in proportion to the capitals they employ. What muſt inevitably follow? The weak muſt yield to the ſtrong. The latter have it in their power to demand a price, which, exorbitant as it may be, the former cannot poſſibly refuſe, becauſe the commodities they will generally be ſolicitous to vend, as being productive of the greateſt profit, are thoſe of prime neceſſity, and which, by conſequence, the former muſt unqueſtionably poſſeſs for the purpoſe of actual exiſtence.

With regard to the *military ſtate* of Great Britain, the celebrated Blackſtone obſerves, "that, in a land of liberty, it is extremely dangerous to make a diſtinct order of the profeſſion of arms. In ſuch no man ſhould take up arms, but with a view to defend the country and its laws. He puts not off the citizen when he enters the camp; but it is becauſe he is a citizen, and would wiſh to continue ſo, that he makes himſelf, for a while a ſoldier." The laws and conſtitution of theſe kingdoms formerly knew no ſuch ſtate, as that of a perpetual ſtanding ſoldiery, bred up to no other profeſſion but that of war; and it was not till the reign of Henry VII. that the kings of England had ſo much as a guard about their perſons. But as the mode of keeping ſtanding armies has prevailed over all Europe for a conſiderable time, it has alſo, for many years paſt, been annually judged neceſſary by our legiſlature,

giſlature, for the ſafety of the kingdom, the defence of the poſſeſſions of the crown of Great Britain, and the preſervation of the balance of power in Europe, to maintain, even in time of peace, a ſtanding body of troops, under the command of the crown. Theſe however, *ipſo facto*, are diſbanded at the expiration of every year, unleſs continued by parliament. In time of war there have been in Britiſh pay, natives and foreigners, 150,000 men, beſides the militia and volunteers.

The *maritime ſtate* is nearly related to the former, though much more agreeable to the principles of our free conſtitution. The royal navy has ever been the greateſt defence and ornament of this country. It is its ancient and natural ſtrength; the floating bulwark of the iſland, from which, however ſtrong and powerful, no danger can be apprehended to liberty; and accordingly it has been aſſiduouſly cultivated, from the earlieſt ages. The complement of ſeamen, in time of peace, has uſually been about 15,000 men. In time of war, after the commencement of our conteſt with America, they amounted to above 100,000 men.

There are, perhaps, in England and Wales, *eight millions* of inhabitants; in Scotland, about *two millions*; and in Ireland, *two millions and a half*. In ſome late debates in the Iriſh parliament, however, it was aſſerted, that the number of inhabitants in Ireland amount to *three millions*.

CHAP. VIII.

MANNERS. A. D. 1688—1803.

DURING the courſe of laſt century, the manners of the Engliſh have undergone a conſiderable change. Their ancient hoſpitality has much decayed, and many of their favourite diverſions are now diſuſed. Thoſe remaining, are operas, dramatic exhibitions, and ſometimes maſquerades in or near London; but concerts

certs of muſic, and card and dancing aſſemblies, are common all over the kingdom. The intenſe application which Engliſhmen give to buſineſs, their ſedentary lives, and luxurious diet, require exerciſe; they are, therefore, very fond of ſtag and fox-hunting, and of horſe races. The athletic diverſion of criſket is ſtill kept up, and practiſed by people of the higheſt rank. Ringing of bells is a ſpecies of muſic, which the Engliſh boaſt of having carried to perfection. Angling, fowling, and courſing, tennis and billiards, bowls, ſkittles, and quoits, are familiar to them.

One of the peculiar diverſions practiſed by the gentlemen of Scotland is the Goff, which requires an equal degree of art and ſtrength. It is played by a bat and a ball; the latter is ſmaller and harder than a cricket ball; the bat is of a taper conſtruction, till it terminates in the part that ſtrikes the ball, which is loaded with lead, and faced with horn. An expert player will ſend the ball an amazing diſtance at one ſtroke; each party follows his ball upon an open heath, and he who ſtrikes it with feweſt ſtrokes into a hole, wins the game. The diverſion of *Hurling* is, perhaps peculiar to the Scots. It is performed upon ice, with large flat ſtones, often from twenty to two hundred pounds weight each, which they hurl from a common ſtand to a mark at a certain diſtance; and whoever is neareſt the mark is the victor.

Two kinds of diverſions, and thoſe highly laudable are peculiar to the Engliſh. Theſe are *rowing* and *ſailing*. The latter, if not introduced, was patronized and encouraged by his preſent majeſty's father, the late prince of Wales, and may be conſidered as a national improvement. The game acts have taken from the common people a great fund of diverſion, without anſwering the purpoſes of the rich; for the farmers and country people deſtroy the game in the nets, which they dare not kill with the gun. This monopoly of game, among ſo free a people as the Britons, has been often attacked, and as often defended.

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The hiſtory of the ſtage is a ſubject of great philoſophical curioſity; as it is, in every nation, intimately connected with the hiſtory of manners. Even from the mode of playing in different ages, there is ſomething to be gathered beyond the gratification of idle curioſity. Our tragic actors, before the appearance of Garrick, ſeemed to have had a very imperfect notion of their buſineſs. As they could have little opportunity to obſerve the motions, and ſtill leſs to hear the diſcourſe of royal perſonages, eſpecially on great and momentous ſubjects, or while under the influence of ſtrong paſſions, they had recourſe to imagination; and gave to all the ſpeeches of ſuch exalted characters, and by habit to thoſe of every character, an inarticulate deep-toned monotony, accompanied with a ſtrutting ſtatelineſs of geſture, altogether preternatural, which they miſtook for majeſty. To acquire only the *tread of the ſtage* was a work of years. But no ſooner did Garrick ſet his foot upon the theatre, than this difficulty vaniſhed. Having a ſound judgment, a juſt taſte, and keen ſenſibility, with a diſcernment ſo acute as to enable him to look into the inmoſt receſſes of the heart; a marking countenance; an eye full of luſtre; a fine ear; a muſical and articulate voice, with uncommon power to modulate it to every tone of paſſion, he roſe at once to the height of his profeſſion, and taught the ſympathiſing ſpectators, that kings and heroes were men, and ſpoke, and moved, and felt, like the reſt of their ſpecies. Other players followed his eaſy and natural manner, to the great advantage of theatrical repreſentation.

This new ſtyle of acting introduced a good taſte in writing. Garrick and his diſciples diſplayed their bewitching power of moving the paſſions, chiefly in the pathetic and awful ſcenes of Shakeſpeare and Otway, to which they drew more general admiration. Originals were compoſed in the ſame juſt taſte. Among theſe, we ſtill ſee with pleaſure the *Gameſter*, *Douglas*, and *Barbaroſſa*. The *Elfrida* and *Caractacus* of Maſon, and

and the *Medea* of Glover, are equally pregnant with nature and paſſion.

The genius of Garrick, as an actor, was not confined to tragedy. In many parts of comedy he was no leſs excellent. The comic muſe, however, was backward in her favours for a time. We had few new comedies of any merit, till Hoadly produced the *Suſpicious Huſband*, and Foote thoſe inimitable *ſketches of real life*, which were ſo long the delight of the town, and have juſtly gained him the name of the Engliſh Ariſtophanes. At length Sheridan, in the *School for Scandal*, and Colman, in the *Jealous Wife* and *Clandeſtine Marriage*, united the humour of Plautus to the elegance of Terence, and our comedy ſeemed to be perfected. But a new ſpecies of comedy has ſince been imported from France; in which, as often happens in the great drama of the world, ludicrous and intereſting circumſtances are blended, and ſcenes of humour interchanged with thoſe of ſentiment. Kelly's *Falſe Delicacy*, and Cumberland's *Weſt Indian*, are precious pieces in this new taſte.

Muſic formed an eſſential part of the dramatic entertainments of the ancients. In thoſe of the moderns, and eſpecially in ours, it was long only an occaſional auxiliary. Our firſt ſucceſsful muſical piece, the celebrated *Beggar's Opera* of Gay, is ſaid to have been written in *ridicule* of the Italian opera. The author, however, foreſaw the pleaſure the comic opera would afford to an Engliſh audience, independent of that circumſtance, and only called in the contraſt of character, in order to procure a more ready reception to his new drama. If burleſque had been his chief object, he would have made Macheath and all his gang warble Italian airs. Gay, on the contrary, adapted the words of his ſongs to *native* tunes. Theſe tunes had all been heard by moſt of the audience in early life, when the mind was free from care; in the ſcenes of rural innocence or the walks of gay frolic, when the youthful heart beat high with ambitious hope, or repoſed in the luxury of infantine paſſion; while reaſon was loſt in

in dreams of ineffable delight, and fancy was fed with illuſions of unchangeable love. Every tune recalled ſome agreeable feeling, or former happy ſtate of mind. The effect of the muſic was accordingly altogether magical; and it would have been ſtill greater, if the airs had been ſung by perſons whom the audience could have loved or reſpected. But as this was not the caſe, the *Beggar's Opera*, in conſequence of its muſical enchantment, had a very immoral tendency.—Our muſical comedy was afterwards much refined and improved, by the excluſion of profligate manners, and by judiciouſly intermixing ſcenes of ſentiment with thoſe of humour; as in *Love in a Village*, the *Duenna*, and ſome other pieces of a ſingular kind, which have deſervedly met with a favourable reception.

The immortal Handel, having quarrelled with the proprietors of the Opera-Houſe, brought on the Engliſh ſtage a new ſpecies of muſical drama, to which he gave the name of *Oratorio*, and in which he exerted all his powers of combining harmony, to the delight and aſtoniſhment of the whole muſical world. Arne attempted to inſpire his countrymen with a taſte for the *Serious Opera*. With this view, he ſet to excellent muſic, and brought upon the Engliſh ſtage a tranſlation of the Artaxerxes, of Metaſtaſio, which was received with the moſt enthuſiaſtic applauſe.

With regard to genius, the *inhabitants of Great Britain* are not ſo remarkable for invention, as for improving the inventions of others. The intenſe application which they give to a favourite ſtudy is incredible. It abſorbs all their other ideas. This creates the numerous inſtances of mental abſence that are to be found among them.

The amazing increaſe of territory as well as commercial property, in the Eaſt Indies, has introduced into this country a ſpecies of people, who have become rich without induſtry, and, by diminiſhing the value of gold and ſilver, have created a new ſyſtem of finances. This has occaſioned a ſpirit of luxury and gaming attended with the moſt fatal effects, and an emulation

The attachment of the Highlanders to this dreſs rendered it a bond of union, which often proved dangerous to government. Many efforts were made by the legiſlature, after the rebellion in 1715, to diſarm, and oblige them to conform to the Low-country dreſſes. The diſarming ſcheme was the moſt ſucceſsful; for when the rebellion in 1745 broke out, the common people had ſcarcely any other arms, than thoſe which they took from the king's troops. Their overthrow at Culloden rendered it no difficult matter for the legiſlature to force them into a total change of their dreſs. Its conveniency, however, for the purpoſes of the field, is ſo great, that the Highland regiments ſtill retain it. Even the common people have of late reſumed the uſe of it; and many of the Highland gentlemen wear it in the ſummer time.

The woman's plaid has been but lately diſuſed in Scotland by the ladies, who wore it in a graceful manner, the drapery falling towards the feet in large folds. A curious *virtuoſo* may find a ſtrong reſemblance between the plaids, and the variegated and fimbriated draperies of the ancients, eſpecially the Tuſcans, who were probably of Celtic original.

CHAP. IX.

INCIDENTS AND CURIOUS PARTICULARS. A. D. 1688—1803.

IN 1693, the bank of England was eſtabliſhed. During the ſame year, the firſt public lottery was drawn.

In 1707, the firſt Britiſh parliament met.

In 1727, innoculation was firſt tried on criminals with ſucceſs.

In 1740, there was a very ſevere froſt, which continued nine weeks. The river Thames was covered with ſuch a cruſt of ice, that a multitude of people dwelt upon it in tents, and many booths were erected

for the entertainment of the populace. The price of all ſorts of proviſions was ſo uncommonly high, that ſeveral families muſt have periſhed by cold and hunger, had not thoſe of opulent fortunes been inſpired with a remarkable ſpirit of compaſſion and humanity.

In 1744, commodore Anſon returned from his voyage of three years and nine months, in which he had ſurrounded the terraqueous globe. After having ſuſtained incredible hardſhips and miſery, from the ſhattered condition of the ſhips, and the ſcorbutic diſorder, he fell in with, and took the rich Spaniſh ſhip, which ſailed annually between Acapulco, in Mexico, and Manilla, one of the Philippine iſlands; in which were treaſure and effects to the value of 313,000l. With this rich prize, and the produce of ſome other ſmall veſſels he had captured, together with the plunder of the town of Plata, which he had taken and burnt, the whole of which amounted to nearly the foregoing ſum, the commodore proceeded to Canton, in China, and from thence, by the Cape of Good Hope, reached England in ſafety.

In 1750, the month of January, and the beginning of February, were diſtinguiſhed, the firſt by a very remarkable aurora borealis, appearing to the north-eaſt of a deep and duſky red colour, like the reflection of ſome great fire; and the latter was uſhered in by terrible peals of thunder, flaſhes of lightning, and ſuch a tempeſt of wind, hail, and rain, as overwhelmed with fear and conſternation the inhabitants of Briſtol, where it chiefly raged. On the 8th day of the ſame month, the people of London were ſtill more dreadfully alarmed by the ſhock of an earthquake; and on the very ſame day of the next month, they were again affrighted by a ſecond ſhock, more violent than the firſt, and ſtill more alarming. As theſe two ſhocks appeared to be periodical, a fanatical ſoldier propheſied that another concuſſion would happen on the ſame day of April, and totally deſtroy the cities of London and Weſtminſter. This prediction ſpread ſuch an univerſal alarm, that on the evening of the 8th of April, the

fields about the metropolis were filled with an incredible number of people of all ranks, who waited in the moſt fearful ſuſpenſe, until morning and the return of day diſproved the truth of the dreaded prophecy.

A great number of felons being confined about this time in Newgate, the air acquired ſuch a peſtilential degree of putrefaction, that when they were brought to trial at the bar of the Old Bailey, in May, it produced among the audience a fever, which infected and proved fatal to the lord mayor of London, to one alderman, two of the judges, ſeveral lawyers, the greateſt part of the jury, aud a conſiderable number of the ſpectators.

In 1756, the *ſuba* or viceroy of Bengal, having got poſſeſſion of the Engliſh factory at Caſſimbuzar, marched to Calcutta at the head of a numerous army, and immediately inveſted it. As the place was in no poſture of defence, the governor, with ſome of the principal perſons, abandoned the fort, and took refuge on board a ſhip in the river. Mr. Holwell, the ſecond in command, with the aſſiſtance of a few gallant officers, defended it for a time, till being overpowered by numbers, he was obliged to ſubmit. The viceroy promiſed, on the word of a ſoldier, that no injury ſhould be done to him or his garriſon. But notwithſtanding this, they were all driven, to the number of 146 perſons of both ſexes, into a place called the black-hole priſon, a cube of eighteen feet, in which were only two windows, and thoſe open to quarters from which they could not expect the leaſt refreſhing air. As it is impoſſible to conceive or deſcribe the ſituation of theſe unhappy perſons, thus cooped up in ſo confined a place; ſuffice it to ſay, that after experiencing all the inconveniencies that muſt naturally ariſe from a difficulty of reſpiration, the moſt intolerable thirſt, and the horror of ſeeing their friends drop every moment around them; when the morning returned, no more than twenty-three ſurvived. The inhuman ruffians, who guarded the miſerable victims, derived entertainment from their agonies; and the more ſavage Suba would not have

ſpared

ſpared the lives of the few ſurvivors, but from the hopes of diſcovering treaſures, which only exiſted in his own imagination.

In 1765, general warrants, except in caſes of high treaſon, were declared illegal.

In 1770, the dock-yard at Portſmouth was ſet on fire in ſeveral places. The damage, by the deſtruction of naval ſtores and warehouſes, amounted to 150,000l. A reward of 1000l. was offered for detecting the incendiaries, but without effect.

In 1772, the king's two brothers, the dukes of Glouceſter and Cumberland, having married privately, the former the counteſs-dowager of Waldegrave, the latter a widow lady of the name of Horton, daughter of lord Irnham; and it being neceſſary, in all hereditary monarchies, to keep the ſucceſſion as clear and diſtinct as poſſible, a bill was brought into parliament for that purpoſe. By this bill it was enacted, that all the deſcendants of his late majeſty, except the iſſue of ſuch princeſſes as have married, or may marry into foreign families, ſhall be incapable of contracting marriage without the previous conſent of the late king, or his ſucceſſors on the throne, ſignified under the great ſeal, and declared in council; and that every ſuch marriage, without ſuch conſent, ſhall be null and void; limiting the prohibition, however, to twenty-five years of age, after which, upon giving one year's notice of their intention to the privy-council, they may marry without the conſent of the crown, if parliament does not, in the mean time, diſapprove of the contract; and further, all perſons who ſhall knowingly preſume to ſolemnize, or aſſiſt at the celebration of ſuch illicit marriage, ſhall be liable to all the pains and penalties of the ſtatute of præmunire. A proteſt, ſigned by a great number of peers, was entered into the journals of the houſe of lords againſt this bill.

In the courſe of this ſeſſion, likewiſe, a material alteration was made in the criminal law of the kingdom. Formerly, when a felon refuſed to plead, he was ſtretched out upon his back at full length, and a

heavy weight laid upon his breaſt, which was gradually, though ſlowly, increaſed till he expired; during which operation he was fed with nothing but a cruſt of bread, and ſome dirty water. By a bill, which was now paſſed, this barbarous practice was aboliſhed, and all felons refuſing to plead are adjudged to be guilty of the crimes laid to their charge.

In 1773, captain Phipps, afterwards lord Mulgrave, in the Seahorſe, and captain Lutwidge in the Carcaſe, were ſent out by the government, in order to diſcover whether there was a poſſibility of diſcovering either a north-eaſt or north-weſt paſſage to the Eaſt Indies; but after ſailing to the latitude of 81 degrees, 39 minutes, they were prevented by the mountains, or rather iſlands of ice they met with, from proceeding any farther, and they therefore returned home without being able to accompliſh their purpoſe.

The reign of George III. indeed, ſeems to have been particularly diſtinguiſhed by the ſpirit of adventure. Four different voyages have been performed round the world, for the ſimilar purpoſe of making diſcoveries in the South-ſea: the firſt, by commodore Byron; the ſecond, by captain Wallis; the third, by captain Carteret; and the fourth, by captain Cook; and none of them have entirely failed in the object of their deſtination; each of the circumnavigators having either found out ſome new countries, or ſomething new in the manners of thoſe that were already known. Captain Cook, indeed, performed a ſecond voyage round the world; and was actually engaged in ſailing round it a third time, when, to the infinite regret of all lovers of real merit, he was cut off in a ſcuffle with the inhabitants of one of the new-diſcovered iſlands in South-ſea, called O-why-hee.

In 1775, hoſtilities commenced in the American colonies.

In 1777, much confuſion, apprehenſion, and ſuſpicion, were excited, by the machinery of a wretched enthuſiaſt and incendiary, known by the appellation of *John the Painter*, but whoſe real name was James Aitken.

Aitken. This perſon, who was a man of the moſt abandoned character, ſet fire to the rope-houſe in the dock-yard of Portſmouth, and to a warehouſe and ſome dwelling-houſes in Quay-lane, Briſtol. And it appeared by his own confeſſion, that he intended to have deſtroyed all the dock-yards in the kingdom, in order to impede the naval preparations, and in expectation of being liberally rewarded by the American ſtates. But before he could carry any more of his infernal deſigns into execution, he was ſeized, tried, condemned, executed, and hung in chains.

In 1778, a bold adventurer, named Paul Jones, bearing a commiſſion from the American congreſs, committed ſeveral depredations on the coaſt of Great Britain: he firſt landed at Whitehaven, where he burnt a ſhip in the harbour, and even attempted to ſet fire to the town; he afterwards landed in Scotland, his native country, and plundered the houſe of the earl of Selkirk, whoſe plate he ſold by auction in Paris.

In 1780, there were dreadful riots in London. During the ſame year, a terrible hurricane happened in the Weſt Indies, which did conſiderable damage to the ſquadron there, under commodore Hotham; three ſhips were loſt, and the reſt were much injured. The ſtorm at land deſtroyed nearly all the houſes and plantations at Barbadoes, Antigua, St. Lucia, and St. Chriſtophers. The diſtreſs of the inhabitants of theſe iſlands is ſcarcely to be deſcribed, and was thought worthy of the attention of parliament, who voted them liberal relief.

In 1784, there was a ſacred concert in commemoration of Handel, under the patronage of their majeſties, and ſeveral of the nobility. All the eminent performers in London, vocal and inſtrumental, were formed into one band; and furniſhed a muſical entertainment ſublime and pleaſing beyond conception. Five concerts were performed on five different days, the firſt on the 26th of May, in Weſtminſter-abbey, and at the Pantheon. The total ſum collected during that period amounted to 11,831l. at one guinea for each ticket,

and half-a-guinea for thoſe at the rehearſals. Great part of the money collected was given to St. George's hoſpital, and the Weſtminſter infirmary, &c. and part to inſtitute a royal ſociety of muſicians, who are to provide for poor, ſick, and decayed performers.

The firſt day of the year 1786 is rendered memorable by the loſs of the Halſewell Eaſt Indiaman, captain Pierce, on the rocks of Purbeck, near the iſle of Portland, as ſhe was outward bound; when the captain, his two daughters, two nieces, and two other beautiful young ladies, loſt their lives. About 120 men got on ſhore, but from the darkneſs of the morning, and ſurges of the ſea, many of them were daſhed to pieces or drowned. Among the number ſaved, were eighteen officers, thirty ſeamen, and twenty-five ſoldiers.

The death of that great warrior and politician, Frederick III. king of Pruſſia, happened on the 17th of Auguſt, in the 75th year of his age. He was ſucceeded by his nephew, Frederick IV.

In 1788, died at Rome, aged ſixty-ſeven years, prince Charles Edward Stuart, more commonly known by the name of the pretender to the crown of theſe realms. His funeral obſequies were celebrated with great pomp in the cathedral of Freſcati, of which ſee, his brother, cardinal York, was biſhop. He left, however, a natural daughter, whom, by his pretended royal power, he created ducheſs of Albany, and to whom he bequeathed all his property in the French funds, which was very conſiderable.

In 1789, during the month of January, and part of February, the froſt was ſo intenſe, that the river Thames became a ſtage for every kind of diverſion. Bear-baiting, feſtivals, booths, turnabouts, and all the various amuſements of Bartholomew fair, were exhibited upon the ice, from Putney-bridge to Rotherhithe.—The ſame year, there was a grand revolution in France.

In 1790, two memorable events happened at ſea, which for their ſingularity and importance are worthy

to

to be recorded. The firſt that attracted the public notice, was a mutiny on board the Bounty, a ſhip which ſailed from England, in the autumn of 1787, on a voyage to the ſociety iſlands, for bread-fruit trees, in order to cultivate them in our Weſt India ſettlements. Having completed the object of her voyage, the Bounty quitted Otaheite, on the 11th of April, 1789, and was purſuing her courſe acroſs the Pacific ocean towards the Moluccas, when, on the 28th, at day-break, captain Bligh, who commanded the Bounty, was ſeized in his cabin by a part of the crew, and with eighteen others, moſtly officers, put into the long-boat, with a very ſcanty portion of proviſions and water. In hopes of making ſome addition to their ſtock, thoſe in the boat put back to one of the Friendly Iſlands; but being driven from thence with the loſs of one man killed, and ſeveral wounded, they made their way for Timor, a Dutch ſettlement, which they reached on the 12th of June, after having been forty-ſix days in a crazy, open boat, without any awning to defend them from the rain, which almoſt inceſſantly fell for forty days. A heavy ſea, and ſqually weather, for a great part of their courſe, had augmented their miſery. Having received from the governor of Timor every neceſſary ſuccour, they came to Batavia, from whence captain Bligh, and a few others (the reſt preparing to follow) arrived in England, in March, 1790. The mutineers in the ſhip, who were twenty-five in number, headed by one Chriſtian Fletcher, the maſter's mate, ſtood away, as they ſaid, for Otaheite.

The other memorable occurrence was the diſaſter that befel his majeſty's ſhip Guardian, lieutenant Riou commander, bound with ſtores and proviſions for the ſettlement at Port Jackſon, in New South Wales. Purſuing their way from the Cape of Good Hope, they fell in with an iſland, or mountain of ice, twice as high as the maſt-head; in which getting entangled, the ſhip received ſo much damage, that the greateſt part of the crew took to the boats; one of which, after encountering the greateſt hardſhips, was taken by a

French ſhip, and landed at the Cape of Good Hope. The Guardian continued for ſome days in the ſame ſtate, as when the boats departed, at the mercy of the winds and waves, without a rudder, and every inſtant in danger of being ſwallowed up in the vaſt abyſs: but by the wonderful exertions of lieutenant Riou (who had before determined to ſhare her fate) and the ſmall part of the crew that had bravely remained with him, ſhe was providentially enabled to make her way to the Cape of Good Hope.

In 1791, there was a dreadful inſurrection of negroes in St. Domingo.

In 1792, the French convention decreed the abolition of royalty, and the formation of a republic on the principles of liberty and equality.

In 1793, the king of France was tried, and executed on the 21ſt of January. On the 16th of October, the queen ſhared the ſame fate. About this time, a yellow fever, ſimilar to a plague, broke out at Philadelphia, attended with moſt dreadful conſequences.

In 1794, John Horne Tooke, eſq. and others were committed to the tower on a charge of high treaſon. They were afterwards tried and acquitted. On the 24th of July, a dreadful fire broke out near Ratcliffe-croſs, by which 600 houſes were conſumed. The loſs was computed at 1,000,000l. ſterling.

In 1795, on the 8th of April, the prince of Wales was married to the princeſs Caroline of Brunſwick. On the 17th of September, Covent garden church, built by Inigo Jones, was deſtroyed by fire.

In 1796, on the 7th of January, the princeſs of Wales was delivered of a daughter, who was chriſtened Charlotta Auguſta. On the 17th of Auguſt, general Waſhington reſigned the preſidency of America, and was ſucceeded by Mr. Adams. On the 5th of December, a loan of 18,000,000l. was raiſed for government by voluntary ſubſcription, in fifteen hours and twenty minutes.

In 1797, the bank of England was ordered by the privy council to ſtop the payment of caſh, on account of

of the great run upon it. The bank iſſued ſmall notes of 1l. and 2l. each; alſo Spaniſh dollars ſtamped at 4s. 9d. each.

On the 18th of May, the princeſs royal of England was married to the hereditary prince of Wirtemberg.

On the 19th of December, when their majeſties, accompanied by the peers and commons, went in proceſſion to St. Paul's cathedral, to return thanks for the ſucceſs of the Britiſh arms at ſea, under lords Howe, St. Vincent, and Duncan, the ſeamen and marines exhibited *two* colours taken from the French, *three* from the Spaniards, and *four* from the Dutch. They were carried on military waggons, and each ſet followed by a party of lieutenants on foot, who had ſerved in the different engagements, in which they had been won. The twenty carriages of ſtate employed 122 horſes.

In 1798, the French general Humbert, who landed in Ireland with a conſiderable number of men, ſurrendered to lord Cornwallis, on the 8th of September. Not long after, the French national brig Anacreon, having on board general Rey, and the notorious James Napper Tandy, *Chef de Brigade*, landed on the iſland of Rutland. The crew were chiefly Iriſhmen, and ſolicited information concerning the French army landed at Killala. Nothing could equal their dejection when they were told, not only that the whole French force had been deſtroyed or captured, but that they had been joined by comparatively very few of their Iriſh rebel friends. The Anacreon was laden with many ſtands of arms to ſupply thoſe who ſhould join the French army. They iſſued the following proclamation, headed by an harp ſurmounted by the cap of liberty, and bearing the motto *Erin go Bragh: Liberty or Death.* "United Iriſhmen, the ſoldiers of the *Great Nation* have landed on your coaſt, well ſupplied with arms and ammunition of all kinds; with artillery worked by men who have ſpread terror amongſt the ranks of the beſt troops in Europe, headed by the French officers. They come to break your

fetters and reſtore you to the bleſſings of liberty. *James Napper Tandy* is at their head. He has ſworn to lead them on to victory or to die."

On the 10th of October, at a court of common council, the lord mayor read the following letter, which he had received from Admiral Nelſon: "My Lord, having the honour of being a freeman of the city of London, I take the liberty of ſending to your lordſhip the ſword of the commanding French admiral, Monſieur Blanquet, who ſurvived after the battle of the 1ſt of Auguſt laſt, off the Nile; and requeſt that the city of London will honour me by the acceptance of it, as a remembrance that "*Britannia ſtill rules the waves.*" A tumult of applauſe immediately followed the reading of the letter, and the ſword was ordered to be placed among the *City Regalia.*

In 1799, on the 8th of February, a ſingular phœnomenon occurred in the Iſle of Wight. A large track of land, containing 130 acres, with a dwelling houſe and other edifices upon it, was ſuddenly ſeparated from the adjoining ground, leaving in its place a ſtupendous gulph or chaſm, which the water inſtantly filled up.

On the 10th of Auguſt, above 5000 of the volunteers of the county of Kent, were reviewed by the king, queen, and royal family, at lord Romney's ſeat in the Moat-Park, Maidſtone. After the review, marquees were erected on the lawn for their majeſties and the nobility to dine, and tables in view of the royal tents were laid out for the volunteers. The entertainment, to which 6500 perſons ſat down, conſiſted of every delicacy of the ſeaſon. To give ſome idea of the dinner provided by his lordſhip, there were ſixty lambs, 200 diſhes of roaſted beef, 700 fowls, 220 meat pies, 300 hams, 260 tongues, 220 fruit pies, 220 diſhes of boiled beef, and 220 joints of roaſted veal. Seven pipes of port were bottled off, and ſixteen butts of ale, and as much ſmall beer, were placed in large veſſels, to ſupply the company.

Towards

Towards the close of the year, the heroic troops, embarked on the ill-concerted expedition to Holland, were under the necessity of resigning their dear bought laurels of victory. On the 16th of October, the duke of York agreed with general Brune for an armistice of fourteen days; and about the end of November, the English and Russian armies and fleets evacuated Helder and the Texel, leaving the forts and arsenals in the condition in which they were taken by sir Ralph Abercrombie and admiral Mitchell.

In 1800, on the 15th of April, a circumstance occured in Hyde Park, which caused considerable sensation in London. His majesty was attending the field exercises of the grenadier battalion of the guards, when, during one of the vollies, a ball cartridge was fired from the musquet of one of the soldiers, which wounded a gentleman, who stood only *twenty-three feet* from the king. In the evening a most alarming event took place at the Theatre Royal, Drury-lane, which, coupled with what happened in the morning, gave rise to very serious apprehensions in the minds of all loyal subjects. At the moment when his majesty entered the box, a man in the pit, near the orchestra, suddenly stood up and discharged a pistol at the *royal person*. Being seized, and examined by Mr. Sheridan, he said his name was James Hadfield, and that he had been in the army. At this time the prince of Wales and duke of York entered the room, when he immediately turned to the duke and said—" God bless your royal highness. You are a good fellow. I have served with your highness, and (pointing to a deep cut over his eye, and another long scar on his cheek) said, I got these, and more than these, in fighting by your side. At Lincelles, I was left three hours among the dead in a ditch, and was taken prisoner by the French. I had my arm broken by a shot, and eight sabre wounds in my head; but I recovered, and here I am." He was afterwards tried in the court of king's-bench, when the jury brought in a verdict of *not guilty*, from the impression that he laboured under the influence of mental

derangement, at the time he committed the act. One of the captains of the 15th light dragoons was examined on the trial, who said the prisoner had been considered as insane, but that otherwise he was a brave and good man, and much beloved by the regiment.

On the 9th of November, a most tremendous wind arose about eleven o'clock in London, and for 100 miles round, which did incalculable damage to houses, and occasioned floods in the country, by which much property was destroyed. In Kensington gardens and St. James's park many trees were blown down, or broken off about six feet from the ground. The lead upon the chapel, and other apartments, of Chelsea hospital, was rolled up by the violence of the wind, like a piece of cloth. The newly-erected manufactory for paper from straw, in Bermondsey-street, was overset in a moment. At Portsmouth, almost the whole fleet started their anchors, and many were obliged to run out to sea. At Brighton, Deal, Ramsgate, Harwich, and other places on the coast, the dreadful effects of the storm were likewise felt.

In 1801, on the 1st of January, the union of Great Britain and Ireland having commenced, the king held a privy council, when all the members of parliament in London took the new oaths. His majesty, by his royal proclamation, directed that his titles should be expressed in the Latin tongue by these words:—"GEORGIUS TERTIUS, Dei Gratiâ, Britanniarum Rex, Fidei Defensor:" And in the English tongue by these words:—"GEORGE the THIRD, by the grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith."

On the 14th, an order of council was issued for the seizure of all vessels belonging to Russia, Sweden, and Denmark; and nearly 100 ships of the two latter nations were immediately detained in the river Thames, and the Downs, at Dover, Portsmouth, Plymouth, and Yarmouth.

On the 12th of March, the Emperor Paul, of Russia, died suddenly at Petersburg. As he had rendered himself

ſelf unpopular by his impolitic meaſures, it is generally thought that he was poiſoned.

On the 14th, Mr. Pitt reſigned the ſeals of his office, as prime miniſter to his Majeſty, who delivered them to Mr. Addington, ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, whom ſir John Mitford ſucceeded. The retirement of Mr. Pitt and Mr. Dundas, lords Grenville, Spencer, Camden, &c. from office, is ſaid to have originated in the queſtion for the emancipation of the catholics. The lord lieutenant of Ireland was authorized by them to pledge himſelf to the catholic committee in Dublin, that the teſt law ſhould be repealed; by which promiſe he induced their concurrence to the legiſlative union, and was thereby enabled to carry the project. Mr. Pitt, with thoſe who had ſanctioned the ſtipulation, regarded themſelves pledged to the meaſure, and wiſhed to introduce the ſubject into the ſpeech from the throne on the opening of the imperial parliament; but his majeſty, conſidering the conceſſion to be inconſiſtent with his coronation oath, reſiſted the advice of the majority of his miniſters, and made it neceſſary that they ſhould retire.

On the 18th, the Invincible man of war, of 74 guns, was loſt near Yarmouth, from whence ſhe had ſet ſail for the *Sound*, to join the fleet under the command of admiral ſir Hyde Parker. About 195 of the crew were ſaved by means of the launch; but *four hundred* unfortunately found a watery grave. Captain Rennie, after the ſhip had ſunk, attempted to ſwim to the launch, and, after a ſevere exertion, got within reach of the oars, when, exhauſted with fatigue, and unable to make any farther effort, he calmly reſigned himſelf to his fate. Lifting up his hands, as if to implore the bleſſing of heaven, and immediately after placing them upon his face, he went directly down without a ſtruggle. This afflicting diſaſter is attributed ſolely to the ignorance of the pilot, who was among the numerous ſufferers, and, in common charity, death muſt now be conſidered as having expatiated all his faults.

On

On the 21ſt of the ſame month, a bloody battle was fought in Egypt, near Alexandria, between the Britiſh and French troops. "The conteſt," ſays general Hutchinſon, "was unuſually obſtinate; the enemy were twice repulſed, and their cavalry were repeatedly mixed with our infantry. They at length retired, leaving 3000 men dead and wounded on the field. We alſo have ſuffered conſiderably. Few more ſevere actions have ever been fought, conſidering the number engaged on both ſides. We have ſuſtained an irreparable loſs in the perſon of our never ſufficiently to be lamented commander in chief, ſir Ralph Abercrombie, who was mortally wounded in the action, and died on the 28th of March. Were it permitted for a ſoldier to regret any one who has fallen in the ſervice of his country, I might be excuſed for lamenting him more than any other perſon; but it is ſome conſolation to thoſe who tenderly loved him, that as his life was honourable, ſo was his death glorious. His memory will be recorded in the annals of his country—will be ſacred to every Britiſh ſoldier, and embalmed in the recollection of a grateful poſterity."

On the 2d of April, there was a dreadful naval engagement off Copenhagen, under lord Nelſon, when the Danes were defeated, and a death-blow given to the northern confederacy.

On the 6th of May, a deputation of the principal bookſellers waited on Mr. Fox with a tender of 5000 guineas, for the copy-right of his intended publication of the "*Hiſtory of the Reign of the Houſe of Stuart.*"

On the 19th of June, the firſt ſtone of the Royal Military Aſylum was laid at Chelſea, in the preſence of the duke of York, attended by the ſecretary at war, lord Harrington, general Delancey, &c. when ſeveral coins and medals, commemorating our naval and military victories, were placed under it.

About the ſame time, a celebrated phyſician diſcovered a ſpecific in the ſcarlet fever, viz. twenty-five drops of tincture of foxglove, given every three hours, day and night.

During

During this month, a convention was signed at Peterſburg, as the baſis of a renewed pacification between Great Britain and the northern powers. The immediate cauſe of hoſtilities was a difference on the right of ſearching neutral veſſels by belligerent flags, ſo as to prevent the enemy on either ſide from being ſupplied by ſuch neutral ſhips with warlike ſtores. The death of the emperor Paul, however, and the moderation and wiſdom of his ſucceſſor, produced a termination of hoſtilities, and the Britiſh cabinet gained every eſſential point for which they contended.

On the 18th of July, official accounts were received at Conſtantinople of the ſurrender of Cairo to the Britiſh and Turkiſh troops. The duty of the garriſon was divided between the Turks and the Engliſh, and after leaving a force competent to this ſervice, the grand vizier, and general Hutchinſon, (who had ſucceeded ſir Ralph Abercrombie as commander in chief,) advanced with 36,000 men againſt Alexandria.

On the 4th of Auguſt, an attack, conducted by lord Nelſon, was made on the gun-boats, &c. in the harbour of Boulogne, intended for an invaſion of England.

Early in this month, the three following ſtatements of the national debt appeared in the public prints. Mr. Morgan fixed it at 506,136,972l. and Mr. Tierny, at 490,009,846l. The chancellor of the exchequer's ſtatement, which received the fiat of parliament, amounted to 426,207,865l.

On the 27th of Auguſt, the town and forts of Alexandria ſurrendered to the brave general Hutchinſon, the French general Menou having offered to capitulate. The co-operation of ſir Sidney Smith's naval force aſſiſted him materially, by the deſtruction of the French gun-boats, and ſome batteries between lake Mareotis and the ſhore. The important object of the expedition to Egypt being thus accompliſhed, the conqueſt of that country was eminently glorious to the Britiſh arms.

On the 10th of October, general Lauriſton, aid-de-camp to Bonaparte, firſt conſul of France, arrived in London, with the ratification of the preliminaries of peace. M. Otto, plenipotentiary for the French republic, immediately waited on lord Hawkeſbury with him, and at three o'clock the park and tower guns announced the exchange of the ratification. On general Lauriſton's paſſing through town to M. Otto's reſidence, his carriage was followed by a numerous concourſe of people, who afterwards took the horſes from his carriage, and drew it down Bond-ſtreet, St. James's-ſtreet, and to Downing-ſtreet, expreſſing on the occaſion the moſt tumultuous joy. At night there was a very univerſal, and in many places, a ſplendid illumination. The ſtreets were crouded with people of all ranks till near ten o'clock, when a dreadful ſtorm of thunder and rain compelled them reluctantly to retire. The lightning was ſo vivid, that the whole atmoſphere was, as it were, in a blaze; which, added to the ſplendor of the illumination, had a grand effect.

By this preliminary treaty, Great Britain retains the iſland of Ceylon, in the Eaſt Indies, and Trinidad, in the Weſt, reſtoring all the other French, Spaniſh, and Dutch poſſeſſions, but with the ſtipulation that the Cape of Good Hope is to remain a free port. Malta is to be evacuated both by the French and Engliſh, and reſtored to the Porte. Naples and Rome are alſo to be evacuated, and no French troops are to remain in the Roman territories.

Not long after, marquis Cornwallis was appointed to be plenipotentiary at the congreſs at Amiens, in France, for the ſignature of the *definitive treaty*. Anthony Merry eſq. was alſo appointed to execute the office of his majeſty's ſecretary at the ſaid congreſs. The town of Amiens was celebrated before the revolution, for its manufactures in linen and woollen cloth, which, it is ſaid, employed 30,000 people. This ancient town is remarkable for having been taken by the

the Spaniards, in 1597, by the following ſingular ſtratagem. A number of ſoldiers, diſguiſed like peaſants, conducted a cart loaded with walnuts, and let a quantity of them fall from the machine, juſt as the gate was opened; and while the unſuſpecting guard was gathering up the nuts, the Spaniſh army entered, and took poſſeſſion of the town. It was retaken by Henry IV. Amiens is on the road from Calais to Paris, ſeventy-five miles north of that city.

The 9th of November was celebrated, in London, with unuſual magnificence. Sir John Eamer, the new lord mayor, thought it his duty as a ſoldier to revive the *Man in Armour*. A dragoon undertook to be the champion, and he was fitted with armour from the tower. He was dreſſed up in the *cuiraſs* and *helmet* of William the Conqueror, the *gloves* of John of Gaunt, and the *boſe* of Henry VIII. Sir John's corps likewiſe attended to do him honour. The dinner was ſumptuous. It conſiſted of above 2000 diſhes; and the hall was adapted to the accommodation of 4000 perſons.—Sir William Staines, the late lord mayor, on his health being drank, returned thanks in a ſhort ſpeech, in which he ſaid—" I aſſure you, with truth, that theſe thanks flow from a grateful heart. When I look back on my paſt life, and know that I have been advanced literally from a dunghill to the chief magiſtracy of this great city, I bow down with gratitude to providence, Providence, ever gracious, ordains all things! Providence ſuperintends all things! Providence giveth ſtrength to the weak! In my humble exertion to fulfil the various duties of that high and important office, from which I am about to retire, if I have the good fortune to merit your approbation, and to have given ſatisfaction to my fellow citizens at large, I retire with pleaſure again to enjoy the comfort and happineſs of domeſtic ſociety. I hope to ſpend the remainder of my days in peace, and when the time comes, I ſhall die content."

In the month of December, a French fleet of 20 ſhips ſailed from Breſt, to reſtore order in St. Domingo,

go, where a dangerous insurrection of the negroes had broken out, under *Toussaint*, their *sable* chief. In Gaudaloupe also there was an insurrection of the mulattoes, who not only refused to assimilate with the *whites*, but wished to command them.

In 1802, on the 6th of January, a court martial was held on board the Gladiator, in Portsmouth harbour, for the trial of the mutineers, late of his majesty's ship *Temeraire*, whose behaviour was very *seditious*, after receiving information, that they must go to the West Indies, to assist in settling the disturbances there. They were found guilty and executed. "Order is Heaven's first law;" and there is no possible situation, in which order and discipline are more necessary than in the navy.

On the 9th of February, Mr. Abbott was chosen speaker of the house of commons, in the room of Sir John Mitford, appointed lord chancellor of Ireland, *vice* the earl of Clare, deceased. About the same time the new constitution of the Italian republic was carried into effect with great ceremony and pomp.

On the 27th of March, the definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain on the one part, and France, Spain, and Holland on the other, was signed at Amiens.

On the 29th of April peace was proclaimed throughout the metropolis, with the accustomed ceremony and pomp. At night a general illumination took place.

On the 11th of May, Bonaparte was elected by the conservative senate first consul of the French republic for ten years, in addition to the seven years unexpired of the time for which, in the first instance, he was elected, and a decree passed for submitting to the people the propriety of conferring a still further mark of gratitude upon that extraordinary man, by electing him consul for life.

Not long after, a treaty was concluded between France and the prince of Orange, by which, for certain considerations, the latter agreed to renounce the dignity

dignity of Stadtholder of the united provinces, and all the domains and territorial property ſituated in the Batavian republic or its colonies.

On the 15th of June, official accounts were received from St. Domingo of Touſſaint and his lieutenant-generals having ſurrendered to the French arms, and that immenſe magazines of ammunition and artillery had fallen into the hands of the victors.

On the 26th, M. Garnerin aſcended, for the firſt time in England, in his balloon from Ranelagh, accompanied by captain Sowden. They deſcended near Colcheſter, having performed a journey of about ſixty miles in three quarters of an hours.

On the 29th, the parliament of the united kingdom was diſſolved by a proclamation from the King in council. This was the 18th parliament of Great Britain, and the firſt of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

On the 4th of Auguſt, Bonaparte was formally inveſted with the conſulſhip for life, by the ſeveral conſtituted authorities, after the votes of the people in favour of the meaſure had been declared.

On the 16th, the new parliament, which was appointed to meet on the laſt day of this month, was further prorogued to the 5th of October.

On the 27th, the new docks at Blackwall were opened in preſence of the principal officers of ſtate, on which occaſion the Henry Addington Weſt Indiaman entered, decorated with the colours of the different nations of Europe.

On the 7th of September, an inſurrection broke out in ſeveral of the ſmall cantons of Switzerland, which afterwards ſpread throughout the greater part of the country. The army of Swiſs patriots defeated the troops of the government before Berne, and poſſeſſed themſelves of that city, and alſo of Baſle. The government inſtantly retired to Lauſanne, and a convention was ſigned between the oppoſing parties. Much bloodſhed, on both ſides, preceded this event, which amounted

amounted to a complete counter revolution, the patriots having appointed a government and ſenate of their own.

Bonaparte, being now invited to interpoſe his authority as mediator in the affairs of Switzerland, iſſued a proclamation, ordering all the late proceedings of the patriots to be annulled, the depoſed government to be reſtored to their power, and that deputies from the Cantons ſhould repair to Paris, there to ſettle the future conſtitution of the Helvetic republic.

On the 4th of October, the Swiſs patriots obtained ſome further ſucceſſes, but the arrival of Bonaparte's aid de camp, with the Conſul's proclamation, cauſed a ſuſpenſion of hoſtilities to take place, the patriots prudently reſolving to oppoſe no force to the mandate of the Conſular Chief, which, on the contrary, was referred by them to their own Diet at Schwitz.

The Helvetic government then iſſued a proclamation, in which, after praiſing the conduct of Bonaparte, they declare their acceptance of the armed mediation he had determined upon with reſpect to that country. A few days after, the Diet of Schwitz, and all the other revolutionary authorities, in conſequence of the entrance of the French troops into Switzerland, abandoned all intentions of further reſiſtance, and diſſolved itſelf, having on the preceding day given the neceſſary orders for diſbanding the whole of the inſurgent army. Thus terminated the Helvetic inſurrection.

Several ſhips of the line and frigates were about this time ordered by the Britiſh government to be commiſſioned, and got ready for ſea, in purſuance of a reſolution entered into by them reſpecting the particular extent of the peace eſtabliſhment. The houſe of commons ſoon after voted 50,000 ſeamen and marines for the ſervice of the enſuing year.

On the 6th of November, general Andreoſſi, the ambaſſador from the French republic, arrived in London, accompanied by his ſecretaries and ſuite. Two days

days after, lord Whitworth, the Britiſh ambaſſador to the French republic, ſet out for Paris, accompanied by his ſpouſe, the ducheſs of Dorſet, and a numerous retinue.

On the 16th, colonel Deſpard, and between thirty and forty perſons of the loweſt order, ſome of them ſoldiers of the foot guards, were taken into cuſtody, on a charge of high treaſon. After various examinations, the colonel and fifteen others were fully committed for trial, and the remainder diſcharged on their own recognizances.

On the 3d of December, M. Schimmelpenninck, the Dutch plenipotentiary to the Britiſh court, arrived in London.

On the 18th, intelligence was received of the Rajah of Bullana having been defeated by a detachment of the Britiſh ſouthern army, aſſiſted by the Myſore troops, and ſentenced to perpetual impriſonment.

Towards the end of the month, the Hamburgh mail brought an account of the troops of the Egyptian Beys having defeated in ſeveral actions thoſe of the Grand Seignior, and poſſeſſed themſelves of the whole of Upper Egypt.

In 1803, on the 11th of January, the Hindoſtan Eaſt Indiaman, outward bound for Madras and China, was wrecked off Reculver, near Margate. One gentleman, whoſe name was Clarke, a cadet for Madras, with ſixteen of the crew, unfortunately periſhed. The captain, and the remainder of the officers and crew, were ſaved. The female paſſengers were fortunately all on ſhore at Deal, waiting for the arrival of the ſhip.

About the ſame time, the misfortunes ſuſtained in St. Domingo made a great impreſſion on the French cabinet. The army, at whoſe head Bonaparte had ſo frequently fought, and reaped the iron harveſt of the field, both in Europe and Aſia, now ſuffered very much by the deadly attack of a peſtilential climate, conjoined with the inceſſant incurſions of hordes of undiſ-

undiſciplined barbarians, whoſe complexion and powers they had been inured to deſpiſe; while, to finiſh the cataſtrophe, general Leclerc, the commander in chief, and his own brother-in-law, fell a victim to the former ſcourge. After having languiſhed ten days under the common fever of the country, he expired, and was ſucceeded by Rochambeau, an officer of ſuperior talents.

On the 7th of February, by ſpecial commiſſion, in the New Seſſions Houſe, Borough, before the Right Honourable Lord Ellenborough, Baron Thompſon, Sir Simon Le Blanc, and Sir A. Chambre, Colonel Deſpard and his aſſociates were indicted for high treaſon, and found guilty. The Colonel and ſix others were executed on the 21ſt. After hanging about half an hour till they were quite dead, they were cut down, when their heads were ſevered from their bodies, and exhibited to the populace. There was not the leaſt tendency to riot or diſturbance. A ſky-rocket, however, was ſent to the keeper of the priſon, to be let off, as a ſignal to the military, in the caſe of any diſturbance.

Another object of public attention, on the very day that the conſpirators ſuffered, was the trial of M. Peltier, for a libel upon the *Chief Conſul* of France, and an attempt to excite the people of that country to aſſaſſinate him, as Romulus and Julius Cæſar were aſſaſſinated at Rome; of which charges the defendant was found guilty. As Bonaparte cannot be ſuppoſed to poſſeſs much popularity in Great Britain, his obtaining a verdict muſt impreſs upon the world at large a deep reverence and veneration for the mode of trial by jury, and the impartial manner in which juſtice is adminiſtered in this country.

About the ſame time, a ſingular phœnomenon was obſerved in the pariſh of Noa Kopperbarger, in the province of Dalecarlia, in Sweden. At two in the morning the moon, at its full, was ſeen ſurrounded by a black circle, inclosed in a circle of blood red.—From the eaſt and weſt ſides of the moon ſeveral rays eſcaped, which

which were prolonged to the circles, where two ſuns appeared diſtinctly, the one in the eaſt, and the other in the weſt, having the colours of the rainbow, and emitting perpendicularly towards the horizon rays of light. In the heavens was ſeen a rainbow, which touched the circle round the moon, and on the ſides of which were alſo two ſuns of the ſame form as the other, but of a paler colour.

This phænomenon embraced nearly the whole horizon, and continued for ſome time.

FINIS.

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